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The Forum

EDITED BY J. M. RICE

APRIL—JUNE, 1907

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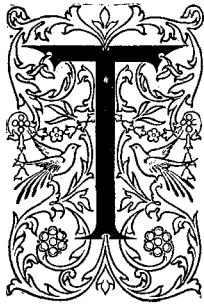
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The Forum

APRIL, 1907.

AMERICAN POLITICS.

THE most significant and important contribution to the literature of American politics in recent times is the address delivered by Mr. Elihu Root, the able and distinguished Secretary of State, before the Pennsylvania Society in New York City, a few weeks ago. In that address, it will be remembered, Mr. Root emphasized the growth of federalism in this republic, and indulged in much thoughtful speculation as to the future of the States under our dual system of constitutional government. So forcefully were his ideas expressed, so plainly did he picture the tendency of the times, so rudely did he awaken the public mind into a consciousness of a menacing situation, that the echo of his address has by no means died away.

At semi-public functions, in the halls of Congress, and in the editorial columns of nearly every newspaper in the land, Mr. Root's words have formed the text for comment and discussion. Indeed, he may be said to have created a political issue; for the Democrats, following in the footsteps of Jefferson, are still ardent advocates of States' rights, and their leaders have openly welcomed a contest over the question of whether the federal power shall be still further enlarged. It is appropriate, therefore, to discuss in this issue of THE FORUM, even at some length, the development and growth of federalism in the United States, and to consider what problems the future has in store. The subject is one of intense interest to every student of American politics.

It is impossible, of course, to present Secretary Root's speech in all its interesting detail. We must content ourselves, therefore, with a mere exposition. He asserted, first of all, that the conditions under

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which the clauses of the Constitution, distributing powers to the National and State governments, are now and henceforth to be applied are widely different from the conditions which were or could have been within the contemplation of the framers of the Constitution, and widely different from those which obtained during the early years of the republic. He emphasized the sparseness of the population at that time, the difficulties and hardships of long and laborious journeys, and, above all, the very natural fear that as the States grew more and more self-sufficient they would fall apart, and that the Union would resolve itself into a number of separate confederacies. Owing to the marvelous progress of our civilization, the point of view has entirely changed.

"Our whole life," said Mr. Root, "has swung away from the old State centres and is crystallizing about national centres"; and he added that "in the wide range of daily life and activity and interest the old lines between the States and the old barriers which kept the States as separate communities are completely lost from sight." The political changes have been responsive to these altered material conditions. According to Mr. Root, the people of the country are realizing that laws which were adequate enough for the due and just regulation and control of the business which was transacted and the activity which began and ended within the limits of the several States are inadequate for the due and just control of the business and activities which extend throughout all the States, and that the power of regulation and control is gradually passing into the hands of the national government.

In other words, from Mr. Root's point of view, the national government is simply undertaking the performance of duties which the States are no longer adequately capable of performing. At the same time, he insists, many of the States are totally ignoring even the duties which were within their province. This has led to a curious anomaly, which, although not emphasized by Secretary Root, actually exists. In States where there has been a failure to enact desirable legislation, a feeling of discontent against State control has been engendered; while the very fact that other States display a progress not universally enjoyed stimulates the tendency toward the beneficent exercise of the federal power.

I shall quote only one portion of Mr. Root's speech, namely, the concluding paragraphs, which read as follows:

It is useless for the advocates of State rights to inveigh against the supremacy of the constitutional laws of the United States or against the extension of national authority in the fields of necessary control where the States themselves fail in the performance of their duty. The instinct for self-government among the people of the United States is too strong to permit them long to respect any one's right to exercise a power which he fails to exercise. The governmental control which they deem just and necessary they will have.

It may be that such control could better be exercised in particular instances by the governments of the States; but the people will have the control they need either from the States or from the national Government, and if the States fail to furnish it in due measure, sooner or later constructions of the Constitution will be found to vest the power where it will be exercised—in the national Government.

The true and only way to preserve State authority is to be found in the awakened conscience of the States, their broadened views and higher standard of responsibility to the general public, in effective legislation by the States in conformity to the general moral sense of the country, and in the vigorous exercise for the general public good of that State authority which is to be preserved

Secretary Root's forceful presentation of the present supremacy of federalism, or centralization, as the exercise of enlarged powers by the general Government is sometimes designated, might easily be dismissed without consideration were it not for the fact that it presents a picture that is absolutely accurate. Every one who has watched the trend of national legislation during the past ten or fifteen years, as the writer has done, has noticed the encroachment of federal authority, sometimes by gradual steps and sometimes by leaps and bounds, along lines which, to say the least, were of dubious constitutionality, especially if the Constitution be construed with any degree of literal interpretation.

It is true that this enlarged power has been always exercised for the public good and was invariably demanded by conditions which could not, apparently, be otherwise remedied. None the less, the tendency toward congressional jurisdiction over matters which, half a century ago, would have been considered as wholly within the jurisdiction of the States has been steadily increasing, and, as will be shown later, is more rampant to-day than ever before.

A thorough discussion of the situation carries us, therefore, beyond the point reached in Mr. Root's address. He contented himself with asserting that if the States failed in their duty national control would, indeed, become supreme. It is easy enough to go a step further and consider whether it is possible for the States to grant the relief from existing evils which is so imperatively demanded; and if it shall be shown that reliance upon State legislation will be hope deferred, we must consider how far we are destined to drift away from our old moorings. We realize now that we accept complacently a condition of federal control beyond the wildest imaginings of Alexander Hamilton. Into what situation shall we be led ere the end comes?

No adequate appreciation of the difficulties attending our national situation can be obtained until we realize the fact that, even while we talk of the present tendency toward federalism and discuss Secretary Root's address as though it related to some new and menacing feature, we

have been steadily advancing in our federalism for more than two hundred and fifty years. Our nation has passed through three stages. The first was the union of the colonies, an alliance temporary in its nature and formed for the purpose of accomplishing a specified result. Confederation, which meant a surrendering of some of the local rights of the sovereignties in order that the entire people might be benefited, was the second stage; but even in this we find that the States jealously retained and guarded their individual supremacy. Finally came federalism, wherein the largest measure of power was surrendered by the States to the general government, while the latter, instead of being the creature of the sovereignties, became the creature of the mass of people that compose the sovereignties.

In this distinction between confederation and federalism lies the whole germ of the development of the United States. Viewed in this light, the opening sentence of the Constitution presents a significance not otherwise perceived. "We the people of the United States," declares the Constitution. Some of the men who framed the Constitution appreciated the full purport of this phrase. Patrick Henry, returning to Virginia and presenting the immortal document to his State for ratification, pointed out that it should have declared that "we, the States of the United States," etc. He was a States' Rights advocate, and he saw plainly that in the phrase, "We the people of the United States," there was an elimination of State boundaries. If the phrase meant anything at all, it signified that the Constitution was framed for the benefit and guidance of the entire people of the nation, a homogeneous mass who dwelt together under one flag, even though their respective habitats might be separated by arbitrary lines.

It is hardly necessary to point out that a step so advanced as this could not have been taken unless the public mind had long been prepared for such action. There had been, in fact, a century and a half of evolution. The very first step toward federalism on American soil was taken in the year 1643, when certain colonies of New England combined to protect themselves from the Indians or any hostile invasion. There were four parties to this union, Massachusetts, New Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven. The articles of agreement upon which the consolidation was based form the germ of the American Constitution, because even then, in the initial union which existed in this country, the provinces agreed not to make war without the permission of the other parties to the union unless suddenly invaded, and that no two of them should combine into one jurisdiction without the consent of the others. Herein was a surrender of certain rights hitherto enjoyed independently. It was the first step timidly taken and apparently with

much mental reservation. Indeed, lest there should be too large an exercise of the powers thus granted to the union, it was expressly stipulated in one of the articles that the confederation as a whole could not intermeddle with the government of any other jurisdictions. Even this stipulation could not wholly disguise the fact, however, that where a union was necessary, the whole became stronger than any of the integral parts, and that the latter suffered in consequence. It may have been the very fact that these four provinces were attached by such attenuated bonds that led to the dissolution of the union in less than twenty-five years.

As the years progressed, the necessity for a larger degree of union between the colonies became more and more apparent. Concerted policy was essential in the treatment of the Indians, while only by mutual agreement could the citizens of one colony entering the domain of another colony receive equitable consideration. The regulation of commerce between the colonies also became a most important question, while it was equally desirable that criminals should not find undisturbed refuge outside of the province in which their offences had been committed.

In 1696 came Penn's plan for an American Congress — the first use, by the way, of the name which now attaches to our national legislature — and under this plan a further step in the direction of federalism was suggested. It is not necessary to present in detail the numerous other plans for union which were from time to time proposed. It is worth while to refer, however, to the plan which Franklin offered in 1754, because it shows the advanced position of the public mind even at that time, in the matter of federalism. Franklin proposed that the representative body of the colonies should have the "power to lay and levy general duties, imposts, or taxes" on the colonies, "considering the ability and other circumstances of the inhabitants in the several colonies, and such as may be collected with the least inconvenience to the people."

The significance of this declaration lies in the fact that three decades before the adoption of the Constitution it was seriously proposed that the colonies, which had hitherto sacredly preserved to themselves the right of taxation, should authorize a general government to collect the money of their citizens to be used for the general welfare. It is true that Franklin's plan did not receive immediate endorsement; but the fact remains that it paved the way for the articles of confederation which were finally adopted in 1778, and which, in turn, were superseded by the American Constitution.

The Declaration of Independence forced upon the colonies a larger degree of federalism than had hitherto even been contemplated. They

were dependent upon themselves; and union, more or less complete in its nature, was absolutely essential to their continued existence. The point to be emphasized, however, is that this union was along federal lines, a recognition of the rights of the people rather than the rights of the States. In the articles of Confederation, although an advancement had been made along these lines, there was still a great lack of federal power — a lack which resulted in a government so weak and inefficient as to threaten the stability of the new republic and compel the adoption of a Constitution wherein federalism was the basic principle.

In brief, therefore, from the time of the New England union in 1643 to the adoption of the federal Constitution in 1787, the development of federal power had not only been persistent and well-defined, but it was evident that the people realized more and more that, in order to secure permanent, effective, and harmonious government, the rights of the colonies and the States would have to be continually abridged and the federal authority correspondingly increased. This fact, so plainly demonstrated then, is interesting now because it corresponds with the situation which presents itself to the nation to-day. Our forefathers yielded to federalism because their separate communities were powerless to conquer the problems which confronted them. We are face to face to-day with the necessity for the largest exercise of federal power for the same reason; nor is the force of the parallel weakened by the fact that the difficulties which confronted them were not the same as those with which we are now called upon to contend.

I have thus presented, in a necessarily brief and imperfect manner, the conditions which led the colonies and then the States to surrender a larger proportion of their powers to the federal Government. It was inevitable, however, that the language of the Constitution should contain some ambiguities, some phrases capable of double construction. For the first ten years of our national life there was much uncertainty, disputes were numerous, and, except in a few courageous minds, a doubt existed as to the outcome of the new experiment.

It is difficult to tell what might have been the ultimate outcome if it had not been for the appointment of John Marshall as chief justice of the United States by President Adams. He went upon the bench in the critical and formative period of our existence, and with great ability and courage uttered forth his federalistic views. For a quarter of a century he read into the Constitution every possible enlargement of the federal powers. No wonder that Jefferson denounced and hated him; no wonder that one of his colleagues on the bench was forced to exclaim that "the American people can no longer enjoy the blessings of

a free Government whenever the State sovereignties shall be prostrated at the feet of the general Government."

Throughout all the adverse criticism which his decisions created, Marshall pursued his undaunted way. Larger and larger were the powers and authority which he gave not only to the Supreme Court of the United States, but to the President and the Congress, all of them the agents of the federal Government. There were strict constructionists in those days, as there are to-day, but Marshall brushed them aside with little consideration. He scorned their reasoning, under which, to use his own words, the Constitution would still be a magnificent structure to look at but totally unfit for use.

Nothing could better illustrate the growth of the spirit of federalism in this country than to note the character of the questions which the Supreme Court under Chief Justice Marshall was called upon to decide. So accustomed have we become to the atrophy of States' Rights that the problems which confronted the nation-builders in those early days seem hardly worth a moment's consideration, much less the exhaustive industry and research which Marshall devoted to his lengthy opinions. We must remember, however, that in those days the States were still very much alive to their freedom and independence, and the national character of our government was not so fully accepted as it is to-day.

Take, for instance, the privilege conferred by legislative enactment by the State of New York to Livingston and Fulton exclusively to operate their steamboats upon the navigable waters in that State. Over in the port of Elizabeth, New Jersey, was a steamboat owner, whose vessel was licensed under a federal statute. He persisted in trespassing upon the New York waters. All the courts in the State, from the lowest to the highest, enjoined him; and not until he successfully appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States did the State of New York learn how insignificant and futile were its enactments when they conflicted with the expression of federal will. The merest schoolboy would to-day decide off-hand an analogous question. In the first twenty-five years of our national life, however, the federal instinct was not so firmly implanted as it is now.

It is impossible to overestimate the importance of Marshall's opinions in developing this federal instinct. He taught the doctrine of "the subordination of the parts to the whole, rather than the complete independence of any one of them." He believed in the people more than he did in the States. "The people of the United States," he declared, "have been taught by experience that this government would be a mere shadow that must disappoint their hopes unless invested with large portions of that sovereignty which belongs to independent States."

He insisted always that it was the people and not the States that had framed and adopted the Constitution. To his mind, the "supreme and irresistible power" resided in the whole body of the people, not in any subdivision of them. "The American people," he declared in another opinion, "did not design to make their government dependent upon the States." His decision denying the power of a State to tax an institution which flourished under Congressional sanction is well known. In fact, he persistently and forcefully asserted the supremacy of the federal Constitution over the constitutions and laws of the States, and established federal authority upon a foundation which remains not only unshaken but actually undisturbed after a lapse of nearly one hundred years.

Marshall may have been building better than he knew, but certainly he was not building ignorantly. He appreciated with the mind of a seer the far-reaching effect of his emphatic and eloquent declarations of federal supremacy. In beginning one of his decisions, he said:

The Constitution of our country, in its most interesting and vital parts, is to be considered; the conflicting powers of the government of the Union and of its members, as marked in that constitution, are to be discussed, and an opinion given, which may essentially influence the great operations of the government. No tribunal can approach such a question without a deep sense of its importance, and of the awful responsibility involved in its decision. But it must be decided peacefully, or remain a source of hostile legislation, perhaps of hostility of a still more serious nature; and if it is to be so decided, by this tribunal alone can the decision be made. On the supreme court of the United States has the Constitution of our country devolved this important duty.

In this reverential and solemn spirit, which is the spirit which must actuate the Supreme Court to-day, he approached and decided the questions which were to determine whether the United States were to be a league of independent republics or a nation bound together from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from Canada to the Gulf and with State lines almost entirely obliterated. No wonder that he gave to the federal instinct a tremendous impetus.

Still more important is the fact that his mantle has ever since rested upon the court. The latter has invariably stood upon the side of the federal Government, and it is interesting to note that in one of the latest cases decided by the court — the case affecting the legality of the merging of certain railroads in the Northwest — the words of Marshall in more than one opinion were repeated with hearty endorsement and satisfaction. In analyzing the development and growth of federalism in the United States it would be impossible to ignore the important factorship of the Supreme Court of the United States. It has been and is a federalist body — dealing equitably with the States, to be sure, but always upholding what Marshall called the strong arm of the federal Government. The

significance of this position is all the more impressive, because, as will be shown later, we are entering upon an era when the Supreme Court will be as important a factor in the settlement of grave constitutional questions as it was in the days of John Marshall.

Having thus reviewed the period wherein the colonies or States voluntarily surrendered portions of their rights in order to achieve a mutual benefit, and having hastily sketched the second period wherein the authority of the States was further restricted by judicial decisions from which there was no appeal, we come now to the consideration of the most important period wherein the people, through their duly elected representatives in the national legislature, undertook to disregard State rights and do for themselves what the States either negligently ignored or were incapable of accomplishing.

There is neither necessity nor desire to avoid full consideration to the part which the Civil War played in stimulating the national spirit and in accustoming the people to acquiescence in the exercise of federal power. I do not believe, however, that it is an exaggeration to assert that the commercialism or materialism which has developed in this country so remarkably during the past two or three decades has done more to stimulate the federalistic spirit than did the Civil War. More than this, it is important to realize that the manifestation of this spirit has been in the direction of affording greater protection to the great mass of the people. There has not been, with possibly rare exceptions, any effort toward official aggrandizement. Power has been thrust upon, not involuntarily sought by, federal executives.

A review of the legislation which has been enacted since the close of the Civil War affords a most conclusive demonstration of the fact that the growth of the federal power in this nation is in response to popular demand. Take, for instance, the federal law which taxed State banks out of existence and substituted therefor the national banking system — a law made inevitable by the uncertainty and danger in financial circles for which the old State institutions were responsible. A banking system, organized under and controlled by federal authority, offered the only relief from an aggravating and unendurable situation.

In later years the people realized that the existence of the Louisiana Lottery Company was a menace to public morals. It was a State institution, pure and simple, but it was quite evident that the Louisiana legislature would not molest it. Even if it had been driven from Louisiana, however, there is no reason why it could not have found an asylum in some neighboring State. The federal Government undertook to exterminate it by prohibiting the transportation of lottery tickets by either

mail or express. The memory of the bitter legal controversy which ensued is still fresh in the public mind; and the decision of the United States Supreme Court upholding the legislation was in thorough harmony with the almost invariable position of that tribunal.

When the federal Government sought to stop the circulation of obscene literature through similar legislation, there was another contest, which, as might have been expected, resulted in another victory for federal power. Still more striking is the instance of the national quarantine law, a measure made necessary by the fact that the quarantine regulations of the States were conflicting and ineffective, causing endless annoyance and failing to accomplish desired results. No one has yet attempted to contest the constitutionality of this law, simply because its necessity is self-evident; and yet no law affords so striking an example of the invasion of States' rights or undertakes to regulate by federal control a matter which comes so totally within the province of State legislatures.

The oleomargarine law is still another instance of the exercise of federal authority in a matter which might well be regarded as within the competency of State enactment; and yet the people accepted it and the Supreme Court sustained it because it was manifestly for the public good. The pure-food law comes within the same category. Not only have we reached the point where there is federal control through federal legislation of our meat and drink, but thousands of advertisements, announcing that certain establishments are operating under federal permit, are doing their effective work in influencing the public mind toward accepting and even being grateful for federal supervision.

The fact is that the very conditions of our civilization stimulate the onward march of federalism. Corporations have waxed so powerful and monopolies have become so aggressive and exacting that the State, to say nothing of the individual, cannot successfully cope with them. The people instinctively look to the omnipotent federal authority for protection. It is this situation which has led Congress to enact laws which stretch to the utmost the constitutional limits of federal power. Nearly twenty years have elapsed since the first federal anti-trust law was enacted; and although Mr. Bryan insists that the control of corporations is wholly within the province of the State, the Supreme Court differs with him and the people do not seem inclined to wait for the slow and dubious process of State legislation.

The latest and most conspicuous example of this character of legislation is the railroad-rate bill. Made necessary by enormous combinations of capital which control an essential public utility, this railroad-rate law is a measure which, constitutional or unconstitutional, had to be enacted.

Conditions forced it upon the country; and as long as these conditions continue, the federal authority will continue to be exercised in larger and larger measure. The employers'-liability bill and the bill shortening hours of labor on the railroads are additional examples.

It is useless, as Secretary Root suggests, for the advocates of States' Rights to inveigh against this situation. The demand of the people upon the national Government for the relief which the States are powerless to afford makes the growth of federalism inevitable. With all these object lessons before it, is it any wonder that the public turns again to the federal Government for the regulation of insurance and of marriage and divorce? How is it possible to check the growth of federalism when the people witness the accomplishment of great and desirable results through the operation of federal authority?

This question might especially apply to the river and harbor bill, a measure similar to which was vetoed by Madison on constitutional grounds in 1817, and which President Pierce as late as 1852 declined to approve because he also believed it to be unconstitutional. The fact that the river and harbor bill enacted during the last session of Congress carried with it a direct appropriation of over \$37,000,000, with authorization for contracts aggregating \$50,000,000 additional, indicates that there is no disinclination on the part of the people in the States to receive largess from the federal treasury.

It is not surprising that this question of the extension of the federal powers should have been the most important topic discussed during the session of Congress just closed. It was a very vital and important question in connection with the exclusion of Japanese children from the schools of San Francisco, an exclusion insisted upon by the State of California, and combated on the ground that it was in contravention of the rights possessed by Japan under a treaty with the United States. The whole subject was made the text of earnest discussion, a compromise being finally agreed upon whereby the Japanese children were to be afforded an education at the expense of the State, but in separate institutions.

In this connection, it is interesting to state that the Californians secured an important concession in a law designed to restrict the importation of Japanese coolie labor. The wording of this law, however, marks a distinct advance in the delegation of power to the federal executive, for it declares that "when the President shall be satisfied that passports issued by any foreign government to its citizens to go to any country other than the United States, or to any insular possession of the United States, or to the Canal Zone, are being used for the

purpose of enabling the holders to come to the continental territory of the United States, to the detriment of labor conditions therein," the President may refuse to permit such citizens to enter this country.

This unique legislation was not adopted without a protest. In the opinion of Representative McCall, a republican member from Massachusetts, it was equivalent to placing in the hands of the President a discretion whereby he could at any time restrict immigration altogether; while Representative Williams, of Mississippi, the minority leader, opposed it because it shifted the entire responsibility from the legislative body of the nation and placed it upon the shoulders of the executive. The fact that the legislation was enacted shows how the largest delegation of power to the federal executive is now accepted as a matter of course.

The advocates of States' Rights in Congress took their stand upon a resolution offered by Senator Whyte, of Maryland, which read as follows:

1. *Resolved*, That the people of the several States, acting in their highest sovereign capacity as free and independent States, adopted the Federal Constitution and established a form of government in the nature of a confederated republic, and for the purpose of carrying into effect the objects for which it was formed delegated to that Government certain rights enumerated in said Constitution, but reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people thereof, all the residuary powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the States.

2. *Resolved Further*, That the extension of the Federal powers beyond those enumerated in the Constitution can only be rightfully accomplished in the manner provided by that instrument, and not by a strained construction of the Constitution, which shall obliterate all State rights and vest the coveted, but not granted, power where it will be exercised by the general Government.

It will be observed that in these resolutions Senator Whyte announces a proposition distinctly opposite to that enunciated by Chief Justice Marshall and by the eminent federalists who had preceded him; for Mr. Whyte's resolution declares that the Constitution was adopted by the people of the several States "acting in their highest sovereign capacity as free and independent States." This view was elaborated by him in an able address, the first part of his argument being devoted entirely to proving that the federal character of the United States was not in the minds of those who proposed the union of the colonies.

It would be interesting if space permitted to present in detail Senator Whyte's argument upon this subject. Suffice it to say that he endorsed the principle laid down by Madison, who explained that the words in the preamble of the Constitution, "We the people of the United States," referred not to the people as composing one great society, but the people composing thirteen sovereignties. Senator Whyte would not concede that the opposition to the federal usurpation, as he terms it, has abated

one jot or tittle from the intensity felt in the days of our fathers. He emphatically challenged Secretary Root's assertion that "we are urging forward in a development of business and social life, which tends more and more to the obliteration of State lines and the decrease of State power," and added that "no proposition is more hostile to the wishes of the great masses of the people than that of extension of the powers of the general Government and for consolidation or accumulation in the federal Government of the powers properly belonging to the States."

The question of federal control and States' Rights also came before Congress in connection with the bill of Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, to prohibit interstate commerce in the products of factories and mines where children under the age of fourteen years are employed. Mr. Beveridge argued for his bill on the ground that a widespread evil existed which should be remedied; and, inasmuch as the States could not, or would not, enact the necessary legislation, it was incumbent upon the federal Government to exercise its supreme authority. He asserted, as another reason for federal interference, that even where States had passed child-labor laws, they had failed properly to enforce them.

His views were, of course, combated by those who insisted that the regulation of child labor was entirely a State affair. Senator Overman, of North Carolina, for instance, pointed out that if the principle embodied in Mr. Beveridge's proposition were a sound one, Congress could regulate the ages of the laborers in the wheat fields of the Northwest, because a very large portion of the wheat grown and harvested is shipped out of the State and frequently into foreign countries. He asserted that several of the States had already enacted laws regulating child labor, and this, in his opinion, was the only method whereby such labor could be regulated. He admitted the existence of many evils, explaining that he would like to see uniformity in the divorce laws and in the insurance laws, but claimed that uniformity could be obtained without Congressional action and without usurpation of the reserved powers of the States.

"Where the evils exist," he said, "the States can and will correct them"; and with almost passionate eloquence he asserted that the integrity and autonomy of the States should be upheld, inasmuch as centralization would be a constant menace to the representatives of the people, breeding corruption and oppression. Then, after elaboration of the argument against the Constitutional power of Congress to enact the proposed legislation, he said:

And again, Mr. President, the law which will suit one State might not prove satisfactory to the people of another State, where conditions are entirely different, and the regulation should be left to each State, which knows its own conditions best. The power to pass such a law is exclusively in the State. The State never

surrendered to the general Government the power or its rights to legislate upon questions affecting the life and liberty of its citizens. It never surrendered its right to legislate upon the rights of person or property or upon questions affecting the good order of society, the public health, or upon any of its internal, industrial, or domestic concerns. It never surrendered its police power, and it never will. These rights they not only did not surrender, but the people have always jealously guarded them and reserved them. This was clearly understood when the Constitution was adopted, and to properly safeguard them was the reason for the adoption of the ten amendments.

There is basis for much felicitation in the fact that a similar view is expressed, but in even stronger terms, in the report of the House Committee on the Judiciary, upon the question whether Congress had any jurisdiction or authority over the subject of women and child labor. The report is emphatically in the negative. It declares that the question is not even debatable and says:--

The jurisdiction and authority over the subject of women and child labor certainly falls under the police power of the States, and not under the commercial power of Congress. The suggestion contained in the resolution shows how rapidly we are drifting in thought from our constitutional moorings. Undoubtedly it is the earnest wish of all who desire the prosperity of the nation that the proper line should always be drawn between the power of the States and the power of the nation. Certainly there is no warrant in the Constitution for the thought or suggestion that Congress can exercise jurisdiction and authority over the subject of women and child labor. If those performing such labor are abused, and conditions are such that the same should be improved, it rests for the States to act. The failure of the States to act will not justify unconstitutional action by Congress.

Unquestionably Congress has the power to investigate conditions, ascertain facts, and report upon any subject. In the opinion of your committee, there is no question as to the entire want of power on the part of Congress to exercise jurisdiction and authority over the subject of women and child labor.

The uncertainty which is thus shown to exist as to the constitutionality of measures designed to improve social conditions through federal control might be removed by the adoption of a new constitution. A proposition to this effect has emanated seriously from Representative DeArmond, of Missouri, whose suggestions deserve consideration because he is an able and conservative Democrat, whose judgment is respected and who is a candidate for the minority leadership in the next Congress. A convention to amend the Constitution can be called by Congress whenever application therefor shall be made by legislatures of two-thirds of the States.

As previously pointed out in THE FORUM, the legislatures or nearly two-thirds of the States have already petitioned for the assembling of a constitutional convention for the purpose of adopting a provision which shall result in the election of United States Senators by popular

vote. Mr. DeArmond, however, would not stop at this one subject, but would invite consideration of all the topics which, in the past, have been considered as proper amendments to the Constitution. The great fear hitherto has been that a constitutional convention, even if called to consider only one topic, might undertake to revolutionize the document and thus open the door to endless ills. Mr. DeArmond does not share this pessimistic view. "I believe there is enough of wisdom and patriotism and justice in the American people," he says, "enough pride in their past, interest in the present, and hope of the future, to protect us against any possible danger that the Constitution might be impaired by the adoption of an unwise amendment."

Even admitting that this view is correct, although it seems to be based more upon sentiment than upon reason, there is still to be considered the question whether, if the Constitution should be amended, the changes would be in the direction of according larger authority to the federal Government, or whether the rights of the States would be declared with greater latitude and clearness. In the consideration of this question, it will be instructive to glance at the efforts which have been made to secure amendments to the Constitution and, from the subjects which they include, to note the tendency of the popular mind.

Of the fifteen amendments to the Constitution, twelve were adopted in the formative period of the government, while the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth were forged in the heat of the reconstruction. The tenth amendment, which especially safeguards the rights of the States, was added in order to appease the element which regarded federal control with great jealousy. The failure to amend the Constitution to any greater extent has not been due to lack of suggestion. More than two thousand amendments have been proposed since the Constitution was ratified, some being unquestionably the product of only individual minds, while others indicated a general trend of popular sentiment.

It is significant to note the fact that not one of the amendments which had anything like popular support has suggested enlarging the reserved powers of the States. All of them have, in some form or other, indicated a desire for a greater degree of federalism. In addition to this, it is also noteworthy that nearly every proposition for this enlargement of federal power has been based upon an effort to secure a betterment of social conditions. This is especially true of recent years. Take for instance the amendment which would give Congress the power to adopt a uniform marriage and divorce law for the entire United States; the amendment authorizing Congress to establish uniform hours of labor in manufacturing throughout the United States; and the amendment giving Congress the authority to regulate the traffic in intoxicating liquors.

It is most significant, however, that the amendment which has received the largest degree of popular support is one that strikes directly at the principle of States' rights and is, in other words, an expression of popular sovereignty as against State sovereignty. I refer to the endeavor to secure the election of United States Senators by popular vote. It is hardly necessary to recall the fact that the Senate was designed to be the representative body of the States, wherein each State should have equal representation and therefore equal authority and power. The Senators, it is provided, shall be elected by State Legislatures, an arrangement which, in the minds of the framers of the Constitution, was designed to secure freedom from the possibility of error in the expression of popular will during times of great excitement or clamor.

Nothing is more indicative of the growth of the federal spirit in this country, and the consequent diminution of interest in the sovereignty of the State, than the fact that nearly two-thirds of the State legislatures in the Union have, in response to popular demand, adopted resolutions asking for the calling of a convention to amend the Constitution so as to authorize the election of United States Senators by popular vote. This proposition, if adopted, would strike at one of the fundamental principles upon which this government is founded.

Now, as a matter of fact, there is no immediate danger of a constitutional convention, and no likelihood that any amendment will soon be adopted. The American people have shown themselves particularly averse to tinkering with their sacred charter. But, reasoning from analogy, and appreciating the federalistic trend of the public mind, it is a fair presumption, should a constitutional convention be held, that a document would be evolved which would be more federalistic than the one under which we are now governed. Federal control would be sought and probably obtained in almost innumerable directions. There certainly would be a clause providing for the levying of a federal income tax, while the question of controlling and restricting trusts would be placed beyond the question of unconstitutionality by a definite provision applying to this important subject. The distinctive character now enjoyed by the United States Senate as a body representing the States in their sovereign capacity would disappear; and we would have federal jurisdiction authorized over many subjects which now come solely within the province of the States.

It is barely possible that the tidal wave of federalism might frighten the people into a stricter construction of States' Rights. There is no evidence, however, upon which to base this assumption, nor is it logical to believe that the growth of the federal idea would receive a summary check after flourishing for two centuries and a half.

If we are not to amend the Constitution, and it be unconstitutional and dangerous for the federal authority to be exercised in opposition to the rights of the States, then we must look to the States for a remedy for the evils which admittedly exist. But, are the State legislatures inclined to afford the remedy, and have they the power to do so? It is happily true that since Secretary Root uttered his warning many of the governors, in their messages to their respective legislatures, have indicated that they were awake to the need of upholding the federal Government in certain well-defined directions, particularly in social and charitable reforms.

It is noticeable, also, that Governor Cummins, of Iowa, in his inaugural speech, stated his belief that the failure of the States to bring their legislation into harmony with existing conditions would lead to government usurpation of the States' functions. We find, therefore, that in New York, Massachusetts, and Missouri, the enactment of laws prohibiting the employment of child labor were expressly recommended, while the regulation of State municipal railway affairs is urged by the executives of Wisconsin, Nebraska, Illinois, Michigan, and Massachusetts. The governors of Oregon, Idaho, and Indiana are also among those who asked their legislatures to create new railroad commissions or to increase the powers of those already existing. Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, advocated uniform divorce laws to be adopted by the various States, a subject also taken up at length by the governors of New Jersey, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware. Governor Woodruff, of Connecticut, urges a committee to report on a practical employers' liability act, a subject which has already engaged the attention of Congress.

The list of recommendations made by State governors, along the line of subjects suggested to Congress, as proper for federal control, might be almost indefinitely extended. We are still brought face to face, however, with the fact that there is a long and tedious road to travel before unity of legislation can be secured through the legislatures of forty-five States. What impresses me, as it unquestionably impresses the people of the United States, is that a result can be attained almost immediately and effectively by a single enactment by the Congress of the United States; and, realizing this, there is a prevalent feeling that in order to accomplish results it is perfectly justifiable to strain the federal Constitution to the utmost degree. In other words, if federal control is not accepted, the existence of evils, which even the advocates of States' Rights do not deny, may be continued indefinitely.

It is true that there is a difference of opinion on this point. Personally, the writer is and always has been an advocate of the exercise

of the largest degree of rights by the States as against federal control. At the same time, any observer of events and any student of the tendencies of the American people must be wilfully blind not to recognize the fact that the great mass of the people are becoming more and more federalistic in their spirit. We are living to-day in a civilization which is not only complex, but which has brought us face to face with conditions beyond the imagination of the men who framed the Constitution. The fact that Congress promptly responded to a demand for legislation to restrain conspiracy and monopolistic combinations in trade, when the constitutionality of such legislation was by no means determined, indicates its willingness to respond to a popular belief that nothing less than the strong arm of the federal Government, to quote again the words of Chief Justice Marshall, is able to cope successfully with great monopolistic corporations.

Mr. Bryan may be right when he declares that "no assault upon the authority or contraction of the sphere of the State can be justified on the ground that it is necessary for the overthrow of monopolies," and when he asserts that federal remedies should supplement State remedies and should not be substituted for State remedies; but the trouble will be to bring the people to the same point of view. They want action and results; and in the effort to improve social conditions and break down monopolies, they are not likely to split hairs over fine constitutional points concerning the reserved powers of the States.

The situation would seem to be more accurately presented by President Roosevelt, when he says:

I would rather have the State authorities work out such reforms when possible; but if the State authorities do not do as they should in matters of vital importance to the whole nation . . . then there will be no choice but for the national Government to interfere.

In the nature of things we cannot stand still. We must either progress or retrograde. It is no exaggeration to assert that, in the present condition of the public mind, there will be no retrogression if the backward step lands us in conditions out of which we have evolved ourselves. Who, for instance, would return to the old State banking institutions, with all their uncertainty and danger, which were taxed out of existence by federal enactments, and in the place of which there stands to-day the national banking system which places federal control over the financial operations of the entire country? Who for a moment would favor the effort to break up conspiracy in trade by such feeble enactments as State legislatures might place upon the statute books; and who would consider it possible to regulate the vast railroad interests of the country for the benefit of the people if such regulation were restricted to State authority?

Who will plead for the autonomy of the States if that autonomy is powerless to cope with national evils like the lottery and inadequate quarantine and impure food? Is there a single alleged usurpation of federal power which we, as a nation, would willingly overthrow? Who is willing to rely upon the indifference or incompetency of State legislatures or who believes that these legislatures will act promptly and with uniformity upon necessary measures?

These are the questions which present themselves to those who, like myself, would like to see a curb placed upon federal control, but which, unfortunately, the advocates of States' Rights somehow fail to answer. We must remember, too, that, in the days of Hamilton, federalism was founded on a distrust of the people, while to-day it is an expression of the people against conditions which they and the States are impotent to rectify. Then federalism was not democratic; to-day it is democratic, in the genuine sense of the word.

It is due, also, to the cosmopolitan character of the people. The millions who travel from one end of the land to the other pay no heed to State lines. They are apt, indeed, to regard with a sense of humor the conflict of State laws which makes it illegal at one moment to purchase intoxicating liquors, while a few miles further on the same action is not forbidden. The very protest against this incongruity is a manifestation of the federalistic spirit; and the fact that this spirit is so universally imbued in the popular mind makes the problem all the more difficult of solution.

It being evident that we are not to amend the Constitution or yield to the States any portion of the power obtained and exercised by the federal Government, we may naturally anticipate more laws in the future which, like those already enumerated, will strain the Constitution and will be contested in the Supreme Court of the United States. That body occupies a position in our political economy to-day as important as in the early period of our government. We must rely upon it to steer us safely between Scylla and Charybdis. It will undoubtedly follow the footsteps of Marshall and read into the Constitution much that is not specifically written therein, but which, let us hope, will still be in harmony with the spirit of that immortal document.

With the momentum of federalism which has been evolving for 250 years; with the object lessons which have been presented to the people in the shape of beneficent federal control; and with a popular belief that nothing less than the strong arm of the Government can successfully cope with the problems of our complex civilization, there will be more and more a tendency to obliterate State lines and emphasize the federal character of the Government. Upon the Supreme Court, therefore, a

tremendous responsibility rests; and even though that great tribunal has always enunciated the largest powers for the federal Government, we must rely upon it for proper conservation of the right of the States. Let us indulge the hope that this reliance will not be in vain.

There was little of general political interest in the session of Congress outside of the important question already fully discussed. What is known as the Brownsville incident — the summary discharge of three companies of colored soldiers by the President for alleged participation in a fatal riot — excited some discussion and led to an inquiry into the facts which is still in progress. Among the new enactments was a law to prohibit corporations from making money contributions in connection with political elections, and punishing a violation by a fine of \$5,000 or imprisonment. This legislation is the outcome of the revelations as to the amounts paid by corporations to political parties in the past, and will, no doubt, have some effect upon future campaigns.

HENRY LITCHFIELD WEST.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

To make or mend the House of Lords has long been the ambition of a certain school of British politicians. The advanced Liberal has regarded the upper chamber as an archaic institution entirely out of keeping with modern requirements and opposed to the best interests of the people, antagonistic to genuine democracy and tending to keep alive class distinctions and hereditary privileges. Ever since England became a genuine democracy, roughly speaking since the passage of Lord John Russell's first reform bill, which marked the beginning of authority centred in the people and deprived the aristocracy of their great power to control Parliament, there has always been an agitation in favor of depriving the hereditary legislators of their few remaining privileges and making the House of Lords a chamber merely to register the will of the Commons. This agitation always gains increased force after a Conservative government has been long in power and is succeeded by a Liberal ministry of advanced views. When in opposition, the Liberals countenance measures which they are not always prepared to enact when given power; but having made them issues, they are forced upon them when they are clothed with responsibility. In England, similar to the United States, men and parties play politics, the result being that Tories swallow a measure proposed by a Tory government; but let a Liberal government propose a similar measure and the Tories will resist it, partly on political grounds and partly because they believe it is an insidious attempt made by "republicans" to deprive them of the rights of their order.

Illustrative of this was the folly of the Irish members in opposing Mr. Wyndham's limited measure of home rule when he was Chief Secretary for Ireland in the last government. The Irish bill could have been put through Parliament at that time; and while it did not give Ireland all that she believed she was entitled to, it would have been at least a step, a long step, in the right direction. But the same measure now proposed by the Liberal government meets with strenuous opposition on the part of the Tories because they fear the Liberals will eventually go much further in the direction of complete home rule and the independence of Ireland than would have been countenanced by their own party. Irish independence, that is the government of Ireland by Irishmen in Dublin,

instead of the government of Ireland from Westminster, is, in my opinion, not a question demanding the immediate attention of practical politicians; but a change such as the Tories believe is foreshadowed, the control of Irish local affairs by Irishmen, must come.

To make or mend the House of Lords is a good and popular battle-cry. It is almost as popular now in England as a certain "sixteen to one" was in the United States a few years ago, and like that cry here it is an appeal to the masses and an incitement to their imagination to believe that many evils complained of can be cured by giving the "people" more power. The attack on the House of Lords is not at all dissimilar to the perpetual assaults made on the Senate in this country; and whenever the Senate does that which at the moment is unpopular, or does not do that which popular clamor demands, there arises immediately a cry that the Senate no longer represents the people, that it stands as a bar to progress, and that a fundamental change must be made in the method of its selection.

Between the power possessed by the Senate and that wielded by the House of Lords there is no comparison. The Senate not only has equal power with the House of Representatives in the control of taxation and national expenditure by being able to amend any taxing or appropriation bill passed by the House, but it also is able to exercise a check on the President by refusing to ratify his treaties or confirm his appointments. The Senate has rightly been termed the greatest legislative body in the world in the power it possesses. In no other country, in no other constitutional form of government, does any legislative body possess a tithe of the power of the American Senate. No other constitutional ruler can be so hampered by one branch of the legislature as the President of the United States can be by the Senate.

The House of Lords has no such power. In a constitutional government the great power of government is the control of the purse, the power to tax the people for the benefit of all the people and to determine how taxes thus raised shall be expended. Under the English constitution that is a power that resides solely in the House of Commons and with which the House of Lords may not in the least interfere. All bills raising revenue and bills expending the revenue thus raised, the so-called "money bills" of English writers, originate in the House of Commons and after having passed that body are sent to the Lords for their concurrence. The House of Lords may, if it sees fit, reject or amend money bills in the same way that it may reject or amend all other bills, as for instance it amended the educational bill of the last session and rejected Gladstone's home rule bill. But as a matter of fact, the Lords never reject a money bill, and if they should amend a bill of that character so as to make the amount to be raised by taxation or the sum to be expended

conform to their views in opposition to that of the Commons, it would be an unconstitutional act.

So jealous is the House of Commons of its great prerogative, the absolute control of the public purse, that when a bill originates in the Lords and to carry its provisions into effect an appropriation is necessary, or when a bill passed by the Commons is amended by the Lords and the amendment requires an appropriation different from that provided for by the House, or an additional grant, the financial provision inserted by the Lords is written in the bill in red ink to signify to the Commons that it is not a part of the bill but is merely a suggestion; and the House of Commons then deals with the financial features of the bill precisely as if it had originated them and without feeling in any way that the Lords have inserted a proviso which is mandatory on it or which it cannot reject or modify without imperilling the measure. It will be seen from this how feeble the power of the House of Lords is compared with the dominating influence of the Senate in all legislation. Of course, it need hardly be added, the House of Lords has no power of confirmation. Nominally all appointments are made by the sovereign, actually they are made by the Prime Minister.

Although the functions of the House of Lords are limited, it still possesses certain important powers that make it a force to be reckoned with in legislation. So far as finance is concerned it is non-existent, but in all other legislation it has coördinate authority with that of the Commons. In England, as in America, a bill is passed by one house and goes to the other, and, generally speaking, all important measures, that is measures to which the government of the day stands committed, originate in the House of Commons and then go to the Lords for their approval. If, as frequently happens, as is the case to-day, the majority of the House of Commons is of an opposing political party to that of the Lords, and the Lords consider that motives of patriotism or policy shall require their rejection of a measure, they can throw it out or they can amend it so as to rob it of all vitality.

In case of a disagreement between the House and the Senate in Washington, an attempt is made to reconcile differences by compromise; and as both houses have equal legislative powers and the whole business of the session is more or less contentious between the two houses, it follows as a matter of course that differences are always compromised, and not for years has there been a serious deadlock. In the British parliamentary system there is no such a thing as a conference committee. If the House of Commons has passed a bill and the House of Lords has rejected it, or if it has been so amended as to make it impossible for the Commons to accept it, the government may again pass the bill in its original form,

and send it back to the Lords, who may for the second time reject it. In that case the government, using that word in the English sense and meaning by it the Cabinet and not the King, may let the bill drop for the time being, or may, if it feels sure of its position, dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country. If its appeal is sustained, if the government is returned to power with a substantial majority and again passes the bill, it is more than probable that the Lords would cease their resistance and accept the measure, as they would feel bound to comply with the popular mandate.

There is nothing in the unwritten constitution of Great Britain to prevent the Lords from continuing to remain contumacious and again rejecting the bill and forcing the government to retreat or to another dissolution. That, however, would come very close to the fine dividing line of parliamentary revolution. Should a serious attempt be made to abolish the House of Lords, as some of the radical supporters of the present government have insisted must be done, or should any plan be devised to rob the Lords of their legislative veto, the Lords for self-protection might go just as far along the line of resistance as they would consider safe or politic. But that need not be feared at the present time. Agitation, of course, there will be, discussion will go on, threats against the House of Lords will be made, but the upper chamber is not in danger of being extinguished.

In a speech recently made by the Attorney-General, he went further than any of the responsible ministers of the crown have yet gone. He said that before the reforms advocated by the government could be carried into effect, it might be necessary that there should be "two or three dissolutions"; but the danger to every government is that after every dissolution it is weaker than it was before, and that dribbling away of the majority in the Commons is justification for the Lords to say that the country does not approve of the government's policy. Should that party after a dissolution come back to the Commons with an increased majority, it might very well give the Lords pause for thought and make them doubt the expediency of continuing to thwart popular will. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman was swept into office less than two years ago with a majority so phenomenal that it would be simply the marvellous in politics if that majority should not be measurably decreased if he appealed for a vindication. This the Tories know, and that is one reason why they feel safe in opposing the government and defying it to adopt the constitutional method to overcome opposition.

The great bill of last session was the educational bill, which the Lords amended so as to make it impossible for the Commons to accept. That

bill has not been withdrawn but has been temporarily shelved until the Prime Minister shall determine the best course to pursue. In the mean time another bill equally as important will be as fiercely contested, and on its fate may hinge the tenure of the present government. The King's speech, which is always written by the Cabinet and is the official legislative programme for the session, referred to the proposals to be brought forward by the government in regard to Irish legislation in these words:

Your attention will be called to measure for further associating the people of Ireland with the management of their domestic affairs, and for otherwise improving the system of government in its administrative and financial aspects. Proposals will also be submitted for effecting a reform of University education in Ireland, whereby I trust that the difficulties which have so long retarded the development of higher education in that country may be removed.

In the course of the debate on "the address in reply to the gracious speech from the throne," the Prime Minister said:

Are you prepared to deny that the Irish people are entitled to manage their own domestic affairs so long as they do not interfere with ours, and so long as nothing is done to infringe the supremacy of Parliament, and, therefore, the integrity of the connection between the two countries? It does not make any difference whatever in the proper sense of the word in the solidity of the Empire that the Irish people should have what every self-government Colony has — the power to manage their own affairs. That is the larger policy that I am supporting, but we cannot all at once admit that demand to be feasible, and I should not desire to do it all at once. But let us remove the more obvious objections to the present system, and let us do it in such a way to be consistent with the production of that large policy. I do not think I need say anything more; there is no ambiguity whatever about it. It would be quite impossible to reform the administration of Dublin Castle by sending over one or two dozen administrators, and I do not think you can find abler men than there are in Dublin Castle. Besides that would be concentration of administration, and what we want is to enlist the Irish people, and for my part I should not be too fastidious as to the particular manner in which that was done so long as it was an effective scheme for bringing the Irish people into play in the management of their own affairs.

The details of the government's scheme have not yet been made public.

When last December the Kaiser dissolved the Reichstag because it had rejected the supplementary credits for the South African War, a great many people believed that the Kaiser was riding his chancellor Prince von Bülow to a fall, and that the result of the election would be a larger and even more hostile majority to the government, in the Reichstag. The Centre, the Catholic group in the Reichstag, numerically the most important body, had deserted the government and it was

believed that the election would send back the Centre stronger than ever and also increase the strength of the Socialists. The result has been a complete surprise not only to Germany but to all the rest of the world.

Instead of having increased their strength, the Socialists have lost heavily, and this is all the more remarkable because everything seemingly favored the cause of Socialism. The high price of meat amounting almost to a famine, a well-defined reaction against imperialism, the scandals that made a change in the head of the colonial office necessary, the expensive and profitless war in southwest Africa, the general unrest prevailing among Germany's near neighbors, Austria, Hungary, and Russia, and a growing feeling among a great many Germans that the autocratic power of the Kaiser should be curbed and the people should exercise greater power — all these things made the Socialists believe they would poll an increased vote. But instead of having increased their strength they lost heavily, and for the first time since the Socialist party became a power in German politics Socialism has received a severe check.

Various explanations are offered. The election proved that in Germany as in the United States there is a reserve vote, what the Germans call the "arm-chair" vote, that is brought to the polls only on rare occasions. That vote in Germany, as in the United States, is normally anti-Socialistic; it is the vote of the upper middle and property classes, who take the trouble to go to the ballot box only when they fear their interests are threatened. It was much the same vote that saved Mr. McKinley in 1896 and contributed so much to Mr. Roosevelt's phenomenal majority three years ago. In Germany last January this class undoubtedly believed that a further Socialist triumph would be a menace to the welfare and prosperity of Germany, and casting off its accustomed inertia gave a severe blow to Socialism.

Socialism in Germany during the past twenty years has lived through many phases. It began distinctly as a war of classes, and its leaders preached war as the necessary prelude to the revolution which was to sweep away kings and aristocrats and bring about that social utopia which was the dream of Marx and Engels and the other fanatical visionaries who believed in the purification of the sword. Bismarck regarded them as traitors to the state and persecuted them relentlessly. The Socialists at that time waged almost open warfare against the constituted authorities; and as the blood of martyrs is the seed of the church, so Bismarck's persecution had the sole effect of solidifying the Socialists and making them hold aloof from contact or alliance with other parliamentary groups. Gradually they saw the folly of these tactics. They now have become parliamentarians and are willing to form alliances for the time being if by combination they can harass the government or

advance those reforms which they believe to be essential. Believing at first that Socialism was merely a passing whim of the moment and could have neither substance nor vitality, the German government, that is the Kaiser and his advisers, refused to pay the least heed to those demands for legislation which was the *raison d'être* of the socialistic party; but a more enlightened policy of recent years has brought the Kaiser to realize that some of the things at least which socialism demanded were in themselves good and for the benefit of the state.

In some directions Germany has enacted more advanced social legislation than any other country in the world. The mere thought of compulsory life insurance and old-age pensions is terrifying to the American mind, and even in England, which is far ahead of the United States in social legislation, its legislators have not yet gone as far as has Germany. These and similar measures, of course, are merely the fringe on the garment of socialism, but they have deprived Socialists of some of their political ammunition and made the conservative Socialists see that there is after all some virtue in organized government. Furthermore, they have resulted in toning down socialism and making it more practical and less utopian. In German politics there is a Radical party entirely distinct from the Socialists. In England, until the last election, there was a small Radical party; but since the success of labor at the polls, the English workingman, similar to the German, has shown a disposition to become either a Socialist or a Radical. Some of the advanced labor leaders openly avow themselves to be Socialists and assert that Socialism is the only remedy to correct class abuses. In the United States the Socialist party, if such a party really exists, has been too insignificant a factor to exercise any influence on politics, and a Radical party is too nebulous for any one to segregate it from the two great parties of which it is merely a division. But in Germany there is a Radical party which will have nearly fifty members in the next Reichstag, and will slightly outnumber the Socialists.

It is not improbable that there will be, if not a merging of the two parties, at least a better understanding between them, and that the Socialists, instead of being a revolutionary party, will join the Radicals in becoming a party of constitutional republicanism. This must not be interpreted as meaning that the writer has any belief that there is a place in German politics for a Republican party as the expression is understood in this country; but rather the idea is sought to be conveyed that an effort will be made to give Germany a more truly representative government, and that eventually Germany will witness a bloodless political revolution by which in Germany as in England the real power of the government will be transferred from the King to the people.

One thing is certain, and that is, for the present at least, the Emperor is more strongly entrenched than ever. August Bebel, the great leader of the Social Democrats, may carry on his campaign for a responsible government and agitate for a government that is responsible to the Reichstag and not to the Emperor personally; but that time has not yet come when the government of Germany will cease to be the Kaiser, and it makes little difference whether Bülow or another is the titular chancellor. The nominal issue on which the Kaiser went to the country was whether money should be voted to carry on the war in Africa, and judging by the result the country approves the government's military policy. At least that is the interpretation the Kaiser and his chancellor put on the result, and which they are justified in doing. After the ballot had shown a government victory, Prince Bülow made a speech in which he quoted Bismarck's words, that if the German people got into the saddle they would know how to ride; and he added that the German people were now firmly in the saddle and would ride down everything that came in the way of their welfare and greatness, a challenge to the Socialists and Radicals that they have not failed to notice. The Emperor, in addressing the people assembled before the palace on the night of election, said:

I thank you, gentlemen, with my whole heart, for the demonstration of loyalty which you have accorded me to-day. It springs from the consciousness that you have done your duty to your Fatherland, and the words which the Imperial Chancellor spoke to you are true: "Germany can ride if she will." (Loud cheers) I am most firmly convinced that if, as in the past, all classes, high and low, and all creeds — (renewed cheering) — stand united together, we shall not only ride, but shall ride down all that stands in our way. (Prolonged cheers.) I will now conclude with the words of the great poet Kleist in "Der Prinz von Homburg," when Kottwitz opposes the great Elector: "What concern of ours is the policy by which the enemy is guided? If only he falls before us with all his flags, the policy that beats him is the supreme policy." We have now learned the art of vanquishing him, and are full of eagerness still to exercise it. Therefore this must be not merely a momentary and transient patriotic impulse, but a firmly rooted determination still further to persist in this course.

The Emperor's success has naturally excited apprehension both in France and in England. In both countries the belief prevails that the future policy of Germany will be more imperialistic than ever, and feeling that the country has sustained his policy and that he has nothing to fear from the Reichstag, the Kaiser will pursue a policy of aggression and endeavor in every way to spoil the plans of England and France. In the eyes of his neighbors William II has always been a ruler dangerous to the peace of the world and endeavoring always to foment discord. To a certain extent perhaps this is true, when it is necessary for him to forward his own ambitions, but although he has been twenty years on the throne

of Germany he has not yet broken the peace of Europe. Probably he will continue to remain at peace although the fear of the rest of the world.

The Czar dissolved the first Duma because it was too radical and too little disposed to be subservient to the crown, and hoping that the second parliament of Russia would take warning from the fate that overcame the first, it would prove a more pliant instrument in the hands of the autocracy. Nicholas II has shown before this that he is incapable of understanding the temper of his people or heeding the voice of wisdom. Despite the terrorism exercised by the government and the illegal methods employed to prevent the people from exercising their free choice, the second Duma is even more radical than the first and contains a larger opposition majority. The Czar has gained nothing from having nullified his own constitution. Instead of having secured a majority more favorable to the present *régime*, there is a majority more determined than ever to destroy bureaucracy and centre real power in the hands of the national representatives. It is more than probable that the new Duma will share the fate of its predecessor and be crushed out of existence the moment it shows its purpose to represent the people and make the throne responsible to the people. That, however, will not end the irrepressible conflict now waging in Russia; that conflict must go on until either the Czar recognizes the right of the people to govern themselves or the Romanoff dynasty is overthrown. There can be no middle ground.

The Radicals and Socialists control the Duma, having wrested supremacy from the Constitutional Democrats, the so-called "Kadets," who derive their name from the initials "K. D." of their party, and who in the last Duma were in a majority, and exercised a restraining influence. In the present parliament the Radicals will have a majority over all, with the Constitutional Democrats holding the next strongest position. To a certain extent, but to a certain extent only, they may be regarded as the supporters of the government and will perhaps try to sustain the government so as to maintain the existence of the Duma; but it is not at all improbable that if the Czar should again attempt the policy of repression and by the well-known Russian methods endeavor to stifle free expression in the Duma, the Kadets will join hands with the Radicals and deprive the government of even the semblance of parliamentary support.

The Russian people have shown themselves apt political pupils. When the first Duma met, a majority of the deputies belonged to no recognized political party and became party men only after their election and when they had taken their seats in the Duma. Now practically every deputy has been elected as an adherent of a recognized political party

and the political affiliations of men are no longer open to question. It is also to be noted that the present Duma is intellectually of a higher order than that which preceded it. In the first parliament many men were sent to St. Petersburg who were deficient in mental requirements and whose intellectual poverty gave little hope of constructive statesmanship. Many of the deputies now elected, especially the members of the Left, are men of limited education whose lives have been spent on farms remote from the sharpening influence of cities; but, as a whole, the average is certainly higher than it was a year ago, and the intelligent manner in which the deputies have been selected and the people have voted notwithstanding the illegal methods resorted to by the government to prevent a free ballot speaks well for the future of parliamentary government in Russia. It was a stock argument of the Russian autocracy that the Russian people were unfitted for parliamentary government and that the experiment would prove a colossal failure. So far the experiment has been justified. It has, of course, been too limited for any one to pronounce it a success, but within its narrow scope it has vindicated itself and gives promise of even better things in the future if the people shall be allowed to exercise their power untrammelled by the autocracy.

Count Witte is again being discussed as the coming man of the empire. It is characteristic of Russia that, absolutely poverty-stricken in great men, without a statesman worthy of the name, with one exception, that one exception, at the time when his services were most needed, was driven out of office and practically forced into exile. Detested and feared by the autocracy because he had the perspicacity to see that only in liberal reforms lay the future of Russia and the safety of her reigning house, and suspected by the Liberals because he countenanced moderation and opposed force, Count Witte's position became untenable and he gave way to Stolypin as Premier. Stolypin has done nothing to lift him above the ruck, and the suggestion has now been seriously made that once again the Czar should place Count Witte at the head of affairs. The Czar's entourage will do everything in its power to prevent this, and Nicholas, as usual, will back and fill and temporize before he reaches a decision; but Stolypin will face a hostile Duma, and if the Czar really means to bring about a working arrangement between the Duma representing the people and the ministers representing the crown, he must find somebody more acceptable to the people than Stolypin and his colleagues.

Even Witte, great as are his power and ability, may not be able to bridge a gap so wide as that; but certainly Stolypin cannot, and if Witte should again attempt the task and fail then the effort is wellnigh hopeless. Of course, the arrangement by which the Czar hopes to retain power

and by a subterfuge pretend to give it to the people is unworkable. A ministry solely responsible to the crown and in no way responsible to parliament is merely a burlesque on representative government. There can be no peace between the Russian people and the Russian sovereign until the Russian ministers are subject to the will of the Duma, or if not that, at least the power of the purse, the control over taxation and expenditures, must be a power vested in the parliament.

But the Czar shows no disposition to give to the people this power, rather the reverse. Last January the Czar constituted himself the President of the Council of Imperial Defence and terminated the separate existence of both the ministers of war and of marine. By this simple device the entire military system of the empire is removed from the scope of the Duma's authority and thus precludes the Duma from raising any questions touching the military or naval defences of the country or the internal administration of the army. The power of the army is the power that holds Nicholas on his throne. Before the army civil authority is impotent. In all parts of Russia men and women are tried by summary courts martial and sentenced for long terms of imprisonment; from the decisions of these courts there is no appeal and a sentence has merely to receive the approval of the district commander to be carried into effect. By thus bringing into his own hands the absolute control of the army, the Czar has again shown how little trust he places in his people and the cynical disbelief he has in political reforms. So long as the army is subject to no will except the unrestrained will of the Czar, the Duma will possess no real power in governing Russia.

If anything was needed to prove that the Russian army should be taken out of the hands of the autocracy and put into those of the people, the publication of General Kuropatkin's history of the war with Japan would remove the last remaining doubt. It is a ghastly recital of inefficiency, incompetency, and corruption. Much of the blame for the defeat the commander-in-chief puts upon his chief lieutenants, and they, doubtless, if they are forced to defend themselves, will shift the responsibility on the shoulders of their subordinates. But the fault rests with neither one man nor any group of men; it is the fault of a vicious system. The army was unprepared and officers were ignorant of their profession, the organization was bad, and this was only what might have been expected because the army for years had been the plaything of Grand Dukes and other men of influence who refused to take life seriously; it was the prey of thieving contractors and their associates in high places, some of them in grand-ducal palaces, who used the army as a cover to rob the people.

No wonder that the people, through their representatives in the

Duma, have become convinced that the control of the army must be passed over to them if it is to be reorganized and made really a means of defence. Stern and humiliating as was the lesson that Japan taught Russia on the plains of Manchuria, it is to be doubted if that lesson has left the slightest impression upon the men who were responsible for Russian defeats, and who with a light heart sent thousands of Russians to their death while they added to their ill-gained fortunes.

France remains unshaken. For a moment toward the end of February the Clémenceau cabinet approached perilously close to shoal water and was in danger of shipwreck on the rocks of Socialism. The Socialists were bent on having the government display the utmost harshness in dealing with the Vatican and bringing the rebellious clergy to terms.

Had Clémenceau yielded there would have been almost open war between the Catholics and the supporters of the government, which is the very thing Clémenceau has been anxious to avoid and has avoided with consummate tact; displaying firmness where firmness was necessary, but manifesting no petty spirit of persecution.

On a question being put in the chamber of deputies as to the contracts to be entered into between the government and the bishops for the leasing of churches, M. Briand, the Minister of Public Worship and Education, explained that the government had no intention of persecuting the church or not to recognize the right of the Catholics to worship; that it was the determination of the government to keep the Catholic churches for the use of the Catholics and no one else. The rights of the Catholics would be safeguarded as would also the rights of the state, and contracts would be entered into permitting the use of the churches under proper legal restrictions. In a word, a *modus vivendi* had been reached between church and state which removed all danger of conflict. He pointedly rebuked the extreme Left for its intolerance, and by a majority of 370 the chamber approved the policy of the government and voted confidence in the cabinet.

M. Briand, not only by his speech, but also by the tact he has displayed, is the man of the hour in France. The French perhaps more than any other people are peculiarly susceptible to the influence of oratory, and M. Briand's magnetism, his restraint, and his evident desire to promote concord all had their effect. He stands to-day an impressive figure in French politics. He has for the moment at least cast his chief in the shade, and if Clémenceau should be unhorsed, Briand would no doubt be put in the saddle. The student of French politics will do well to watch the Minister of Education.

The Pope declares that the present French government is atheistic

and that it wages war not only against the Catholic Church but against all religion. The Pope looks upon Clémenceau and his colleagues as men to whom the spiritual is abhorrent, who would, if they had their way, deprive men not only of the right to be Catholics, but also to be Christians, who would destroy the living God and substitute the four winds of heaven. The clerical press sustains the sovereign head of the church. Into the mouths of ministers are put expressions showing their contempt for religion and the hope that the day is coming when the "Christian idea" will be thrown into the lumber-room with other relics of a worn-out past. These men, according to one clerical newspaper, have outraged humanity "by spitting in the face of Jesus Christ" and making a mockery of his works.

Yet the facts hardly sustain an indictment so grave, and it would be difficult to convince any unprejudiced person that the men who brought forward the separation law and who are now entrusted with its execution are animated by feelings of hostility toward the church, or that they are irreligious, or that they would like to destroy all religion. In the course of a speech delivered by M. Clémenceau, he said:

It is the union of church and state that we have striven to abolish. But while it has taken time and incessant effort to alter the state of the law, it has proved an infinitely greater labor to change the state of minds. The proclamation, the realization of the principle of liberty of conscience, implies a new state of mind. Dogma, from its very nature, aims at possessing the mind of man entirely, dominating it, ruling it in every aspect of life. The daily practice of liberty, implied in a system of separation of church and state, calls for a spirit of tolerance from which dogma has striven for centuries to turn the mind of man. We cannot, therefore, be surprised if we fail to find in our opponents such a transformation of mind as will be brought about in them, beyond a doubt, by the beneficent system of freedom of conscience.

In these words surely there can be found no evidence of irreligion, of intolerance, of a desire to deprive men of the consolation of religion or the right to worship their God in their own way. What the "atheists" of the Third Republic have endeavored to do is to liberate France from the slavery of superstition and the dangers of a political priesthood. They have taken the United States as their example. America has no religion, but all religions; she acknowledges no God, but recognizes the God of all. In the United States the influence of the church over the state has been the influence of precept and example, not as in France, the exercise of the influence of the church over things temporal.

Every well-wisher of France as well as every person who has respect for the Catholic Church has rejoiced in the divorcement of religion and politics, believing that it is for the welfare of France no less than that of the church. In the United States, the Catholic Church, similar to every

other church, suffers no persecution; it shows no sign of decay; it needs not to indulge in political intrigue to retain its hold over its congregation; it appeals to conscience. In France the same conditions are approaching.

Nothing is more difficult than "to change the state of minds," as M. Clémenceau phrases it; nothing is more difficult than to tear down a conventional fallacy and substitute for it pure reason. To ask a majority of the people of France — a majority of that majority being people of little intelligence and limited education — to look upon the church in a way differing from that to which they have always been accustomed, to force upon them "the realization of the principle of liberty of conscience," is as if one were to say to little children they must no longer go to their mother for love and comfort and help. To the great mass of the French people the church has been mother as well as bride; in the church they have found their consolation in their hour of sorrow, their exaltation in their hour of triumph; the church has been inseparably interwoven in their lives, to an extent that no American who has not lived in a Catholic country can really comprehend; to them it never seemed possible that the church was a thing separate and apart from the things of this world. It comes as a shock to them to be told that the church has certain functions, but it has no function to interfere in the political or social affairs of individuals. It will take time to adjust the French mind to the new point of view; but gradually the focus is being enlarged, and with the enlargement is coming a clarity of vision that makes men understand that real religion is the religion of conscience and not the "God of the syllabus."

It is typical of the spirit of the age and of the universal desire of the civilized world for the largest expression of freedom of conscience that a resolution should have been adopted by the House of Commons, by a majority of one hundred votes, in favor of the disestablishment and disendowment of the Church of England in England and in Wales. The adoption of this resolution by such a large majority does not mean that the state church will cease to exist in England or in Wales, but it is significant of the trend of the times. It is to be noted that this is the first time the House of Commons has adopted such a resolution. In 1871 a similar resolution was brought forward in the House and was rejected by a large majority. In supporting the present resolution, Mr. Augustine Birrell, Mr. Bryce's successor as Chief Secretary for Ireland, made this momentous declaration:

I fail to see how continuing an established church can be justified. The church has done the state no good, and the state has done the church nothing but harm. Personally, I believe that disestablishment, far from harming the church as a spirit-

ual body, would restore it to a position of spiritual authority throughout the land. The Government's hands, however, are already too full to assume any responsibility in the matter.

Conservatism is too deeply rooted in the House of Lords for any consideration to be given to the resolution adopted by the House of Commons at the present time, but it perhaps marks in England the beginning of an agitation in favor of the separation of church and state that ultimately will result in complete separation. In England the Protestant Church has exercised no such interference in politics as the Church of Rome has in France, and yet in England the feeling has been growing that it is unjust to those people who do not subscribe to the doctrine of the Church of England that that church alone should be supported by the state and not, as other churches are, by the voluntary contributions of their congregations. The Church of England is the established religion, and the sovereign is not only the head of the state, but the head of the church, and archbishops and bishops owe their appointment to the sovereign's grace. England has long ceased to be agitated by religious controversies, although one reason for the passage of the educational bill was the desire on the part of the Nonconformists, that is, the people who are not members of the Church of England, to secularize the public schools, and a desire equally as great on the part of the members of the Church of England to retain their control over the schools and make religious training part of the educational system. The Nonconformists pertinently say that denominational religious teaching has no proper place in a system of state-aided education, and that the place for religious instruction is either in the home or in churches, or in other places supported by the members of the faith whose creed is taught.

Although the mass of French people are undoubtedly in favor of the maintenance of the *entente* with England and believe that their safety lies in regarding Germany as always to be looked upon as a possible foe, and of taking measures of safety accordingly, a certain number of persons and a not uninfluential section of the press in France take the stand that a *rapprochement* with Germany offers greater security to France than the rather frail support of leaning on England for protection against her neighbor across the Rhine. The advocates of a Franco-German *entente* base it solely on the frank admission that France alone is militarily so much weaker than Germany that to save herself from destruction she must rely on the military strength of her allies, and the only allies to whom France could turn in the hour of extremity are Russia and England. But Russia is no longer regarded as a military power of the

first class, and serious-minded Frenchmen do not believe that the assistance Russia could render, even if she were disposed to do so, against Germany, which is at least doubtful, would be of much value. England, it is admitted, could send a hundred thousand troops to the aid of France within a week after the declaration of hostilities; but even that help would be trivial compared with the overwhelming force that Germany could call into being within twenty-four hours after the call to arms had sounded.

On both sides of the Rhine, in Berlin no less than Paris, military men believe that if Germany should for a second time invade France, the issue would be decided in the first two or three decisive battles, and it is believed those battles would be fought in the first week of hostilities. It would, of course, take the victorious German army many weeks before it again thundered at the gates of Paris, but by that time France would be brought to her knees. Her resistance could be prolonged, but she could not prevent the inevitable surrender, and she would be forced to accept any terms that Germany might impose.

The opposite view is advanced, however, by M. Alfred Naquet, a former senator of France, in a recent article in the "Fortnightly Review." Even if France should be victorious by an alliance with Germany, M. Naquet thinks, the ultimate effect on France would be as disastrous as defeat. His reason for so believing he thus explains:

The English alliance is our best guarantee against war, if a general disarmament, which I should prefer, but to which France possibly might not assent, be impossible. The *entente* with England is not only the best guarantee against war itself, but in case of war it protects us against the worst consequences of war, and must assure us of the possibility of continuing without a break the economic, political, and social evolution of our country. I maintain, however, that, if England has a strong motive to uphold the *entente cordiale*, France has a still greater. Defeated at sea, temporarily invaded, England might be ruined, but nevertheless she would retain her national existence, and her internal liberty would suffer no restriction. France, on the other hand, bound to Germany, would be ruined by victory as completely as by defeat; her liberty would be a step away, her independence compromised.

For England it might possibly be more advantageous to be victorious with Germany than defeated with France as her ally. For France, I believe, in the event of a Continental *entente*, it would be better for her to be defeated by England than to conquer with her allies — so fraught with future dangers would such victory be.

Muzaffar-ed-Din, the Shah of Persia, died last January and was succeeded by his son Mohamed Ali Mirza, the Vali had or Crown Prince. In the early years of his accession to the throne, the late Shah was almost under the complete domination of Russia, which was constantly engaged in thwarting the influence of England at Teheran, and by the lavish use of money and other means the prestige of England steadily

declined. For years Russia attempted to obtain a port on the Persian Gulf, and all the diplomacy of England was directed to prevent Russia from gaining her end. Of recent years England has regained her ascendancy, and since the Japanese War, which pricked the bubble of the invincibility of Russia's military strength, England has no longer feared Russian intrigue.

In August, 1906, the Shah startled the civilized world by the announcement that he intended to grant a constitution to his people and create a national assembly. This was the outgrowth of a determined agitation for reform that had been carried on for some time. In Persia, the mullahs or clergy, who, besides their religious functions are charged with the administration of justice, constitute a caste by themselves and are possessed of great influence. The demand of the mullahs for reforms not being granted by the Shah, their chiefs, as a protest, left the capital in a body, while their adherents, fearing the government would resort to drastic measures to quiet the agitation, took refuge in the grounds of the British Legation.

The right of sanctuary is a sacred institution in Persia and cannot be refused. When at first the Persians sat themselves down on the grounds of the British Legation, the British Minister merely regarded it as incidental to the day's work in Persia; but day after day the number of refugees increased until at last there were no less than 16,000 Persians in security under the protection afforded by the British flag. The situation was unparalleled and required exceedingly delicate handling on the part of the British authorities to prevent serious trouble with the Persian government. The refugees who camped in the grounds of the British Legation were orderly and had simply gone on strike so as to bring the Shah to terms. When the bazaars were closed and business was practically at a standstill, the Shah, like an American manufacturer who finds his factory closed down because his men have gone on strike and their places cannot be filled, deemed it the part of wisdom to make terms with the strikers. After the strike had lasted for three weeks, the Shah agreed to an elective national assembly, and promised to institute certain reforms in the administration of the country. Then the priests returned to the capital and the strikers quietly left the British Legation and returned to their ordinary avocations.

The new Shah is said to be a much more enlightened and progressive man than his father, and to possess a keener knowledge and appreciation of European civilizations and institutions, although it is only proper to say that some authorities have represented Mohamed Ali Mirza as a reactionary, and that instead of being in favor of the constitution and

the parliament that his father granted to his people, he would like to see both abolished and the old *régime* of absolutism restored by which the word of the Shah is the word of the law and there is no one to question either its justice or its execution. But even if he should attempt to overturn the new order of things, it is doubtful if he would succeed.

The Persian people look to their new parliament to protect them from the despotic system under which they have so long suffered; and, having come to understand the power which the parliament will give them, it is not likely they will surrender it without a determined resistance. The desire for liberty and the means of obtaining it through the exercise of constitutional government cannot be eradicated. That desire is the history of the world, and marks the ever advancing tide of civilization. We have seen it in Europe, we have seen it in America, we are to-day watching it in Russia, and from Russia we now turn to Persia. The twentieth century is the age of popular government.

It is almost like fiction to read that General Botha, one of the most distinguished of the Boer commanders in the South African war, is to be the first prime minister of the responsible government of the Transvaal. Only a short time ago England was bending all her energies to subdue the Boers led by Botha and his colleagues: to-day Botha is a minister of a self-governing colony, the same colony that was formerly the republic Botha fought for. In all history there is perhaps no parallel to this.

The constitution granted to the Transvaal by the present Liberal government provides for a bicameral legislature, consisting of a legislative council of fifteen members who shall hold office for five years, and a legislative assembly of sixty-nine members. The members of the first council are appointed by the governor, who is the nominee of the crown, and the members of the assembly are elected. All white males, who have attained their majority, who have resided in the Transvaal for six months, and who are not members of the British military garrison are entitled to the suffrage. It shall be lawful at any time after four years from the date of the first meeting of the council for the legislature to pass a law providing for the election of the members of the council, whereupon the council shall be dissolved and its members thereafter shall be elected in accordance with the provisions of the law. A certain veto power is exercised by the governor acting as the representative of the crown; but in effect the legislature is the government of the Transvaal, and the new constitution, patterned to some extent after the British constitution, provides for a ministry. But in one

respect at least it is more liberal. In England a minister may sit and speak only in that house of which he is a member; but in the Transvaal the constitution permits a minister to sit and speak in both houses, but he may vote only in the house of which he is a member.

The election of members for the first assembly resulted in a victory for the Boers, their party, the Hetvolk, capturing thirty-seven of the sixty-nine seats; and, as they can depend on the coöperation of the Nationalists and Labor members, Hetvolk will have a majority in the Assembly of twenty-two, their opponents being the Progressives, the British party. The English claim that they are in a majority in the colony but that the distribution of the seats has given an advantage to their opponents.

The Boers are now given an opportunity to show that they have accepted the situation and that the British flag means as much to them as it does to Britons. So long as there is an upper house appointed by the British government, no law can be passed that will discriminate against the British or other "Outlanders," and the legislative council will remain as a safeguard until the last vestige of apprehension has ceased to exist. The time when even the nominal exercise of control by the British government shall end rests entirely with the Boers themselves. The theory on which the present British cabinet has proceeded in granting a constitution to the Transvaal is that the Boers have loyally accepted the fortunes of war, and see that their best interests lie in forgetting the bitterness of the past and working with the British for the development and progress of the colony and its people. That the Boers do realize this is made manifest from the remarkable election appeal issued by Hetvolk, which among other things says:

The fundamental object of Hetvolk is a policy of reconciliation, the avoidance of causes of distrust and division, the prevention of the ascendancy of one white race over the other, and the union of all white inhabitants of the State into a great South-African nation, contented, prosperous, and united, regarding South Africa with patriotism and pride as its home, and working with united forces for its future greatness and glory.

Hetvolk recognizes that the guardianship by a white community over the aboriginal population imposes solemn duties and responsibilities on the whites, and Hetvolk aims at the discharge of those duties and responsibilities in a spirit of justice, wisdom, and humanity, so that embitterment between white and colored may be prevented, and all may coöperate for the welfare of South Africa.

A magnificent appeal this to patriotism, a fitting response to the generosity of England to her former foe but now her friend.

Signor Tittoni, the Italian Foreign Minister, has given an official denial to the frequent rumors that Italy is tired of her alliance with

Germany and Austria. Addressing the Chamber of Deputies, Signor Tittoni said:

I am pleased that my statement follows the remarks made by the German Imperial Chancellor, Prince von Bülow, as it enables me to associate myself in his cordial eulogy of the triple alliance and those who made it. The Triple Alliance will continue to form the basis of our policy, and this is sufficient to show that those who, from simple appearances, think they see a weakening of the triple alliance and predict its approaching end are mistaken.

It has been said that the triple alliance has been modified, or transformed, and that it has become essentially a peaceful alliance.

The alliance has always been peaceful. Its most precious feature is that it is an efficacious instrument of peace, and the more so since its existence has been generally known. But this does not prevent the most friendly relations with outside powers. Doubts have been cast on the advantages which Italy received from the triple alliance. In this connection it may be pointed out that it was the triple alliance which allowed us to follow an independent policy and thus saved us from the bitter surprises which many nations, including the Italians, have had when isolated.

The cordiality of the relations existing between Italy and England and the good understanding between Italy and France, which led to the Anglo-Franco-Italian convention regarding Abyssinia, was believed to have been resented by Germany, who saw in this friendship between her ally and her possible foes an inclination on the part of Italy to destroy the efficacy of the triple alliance. Signor Tittoni showed that there was no intention to desert Germany, but at the same time he made it obvious to Wilhelmstrasse that Italy was a member of King Edward's league of peace and would give Germany no support in case she engaged in a policy of aggression. He continued:

If war should break out among the great powers, the consequences may be summarized in the statement that it would result in the general bankruptcy of Europe. Therefore, the programme of the Italian government is to maintain and consolidate the triple alliance, and maintain and consolidate her friendship with France and Great Britain. The success of this programme is assured on condition that we exercise the greatest loyalty in our relations with Germany and France. This statement is identical with declarations I have made to representatives of those two powers, without reserve, without concealment, and with no ambiguity.

In Great Britain ambassadors of the powers have had occasion to see how the name of Italy is sympathetically received in token of the solid friendship felt for Great Britain in Italy. The position occupied by our ambassador in Great Britain enabled me to have the honor of approaching frequently the British sovereign, who is profiting by the immense popularity which he enjoys at home and throughout the world to distinguish himself as a most noble apostle of peace.

Some persons had remarked that the danger of political and economic antagonism between Germany and Great Britain was creating an untenable position for Italy. The powers who form the triple alliance took into account in the interests of Italy the necessity for constantly maintaining friendly relations with Great

Britain, but in the event of an Anglo-German conflict Italy would not be the only one in a delicate position. Austria, having relations of a cordial nature with Great Britain dating further back than those of Italy, would also be preoccupied. Friendship with Great Britain has been the constant basis of Austria's policy since the eighteenth century.

It was in the supreme interest of both Italy and Austria to do everything possible to prevent an Anglo-German conflict, and this places them to the fore in facilitating the movement which seemed likely to bring about an approachment between their ally, Germany, and their friend, Great Britain. This movement had the support of all the eminent statesmen in Germany and Great Britain, whose opinions had been publicly expressed, which was a certain index from which to judge present relations between the two nations and also to predict future developments. That the relations between Germany and Great Britain were improving could be seen in many incidents, including the meeting between King Edward and Emperor William.

Several prominent European journals last month announced that a complete understanding had been reached between Russia and England, thus practically bringing all the great powers into an alliance of peace with the exception of Germany. Official announcement of this momentous alliance has not yet been made, but there is every reason to believe that it is in substance correct; and, although the relations between England and Russia may not be as intimate as some European journals believe, they more nearly approach intimacy than they have at any time in the last fifty years. The present British government is essentially a peace government and is willing to go to very considerable lengths to avoid all danger of war. Since its accession to power it has given Russia more than one hint of its amicable intentions, and it only remains for Russia to demonstrate whether she has statesmanship enough to take advantage of a peculiarly favorable opportunity to establish her relations with England so that she can devote all her energies to purely domestic affairs. It is because of the domestic condition of Russia that she has ceased to be regarded as a power of the first class, and that statesmen feel uncertain that any agreement made with her will be lasting. A nation in a continual state of anarchy is as unstable as a storm-tossed sea and as dangerous. If the Duma were an institution in Russia and possessed of real power, the voice of Russia in the councils of Europe would carry much further.

A. MAURICE LOW.

APPLIED SCIENCE.

IN the course of these reviews mention has repeatedly been made of the practicability of applying electricity to the propulsion of trains for regular railway traffic. The extensive development of the hydraulic-power resources in various countries has also been made a subject for comment. Until very recently, however, there does not appear to have been any suggestion to conserve all the water power of a country to drive *all* the railroads of the same country. Yet this is what it is now proposed to do in Switzerland.

That thrifty little country possesses no coal, but does contain many Alpine streams, these latter, for the most part, being of small volume, but readily capable of direction so as to render high heads available for power purposes. A number of these streams have already been utilized both for local power and lighting, and also for the operation of mountain railways, usually for the purpose of conveying tourists to popular resorts and summits. Now, however, it is seriously proposed to develop the hydraulic power of Switzerland as a whole, and apply it electrically to the propulsion of the trains on the existing main-line railways, thus avoiding the necessity for importing any coal for railway transport purposes, and developing the power resources of the land itself.

Such an undertaking necessarily demands most careful preliminary investigation and planning, and a portion of this work has already been done by a Government commission. A careful study of the railway service of the country has been made, and the actual amount of power required, both for the daily average and for the maximum temporary effort, has been carefully determined. It seems that the mean requirement, taking the average of the winter and summer service, calls for a continuous development of 100,000 horse-power, while the maximum load may become five times this amount. This latter estimate assumes the provision of the best storage methods available, such as the construction of reservoirs for equalizing the supply of water, and the installation of electric storage batteries for meeting the daily load fluctuations, so that it will be necessary, for the success of the scheme, that 500,000 horse-power of hydraulic energy be developed.

It does not yet appear that the water powers of Switzerland are capable of meeting such a demand, and the commission has this side of the

problem under investigation at the present time. Should the plan be found feasible, it will form in its execution a remarkable example of public ownership and operation of national resources for government control of transport, the problem thus involving interesting economic as well as engineering questions.

A far greater scheme than the above is that laid before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers by Messrs. Stillwell and Putnam, this being nothing less than the conversion of the entire motive-power system of the railroads of the United States from steam locomotives to electric traction and stationary power-houses. This paper includes a complete analysis of the present operating costs of the railroads under existing conditions, comparing these with a careful estimate of the corresponding costs for complete electric traction.

As a consequence of this investigation, it appears that if the single-phase system, as adopted by the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad, were installed on all the railroads of the United States, with generating stations such as are now in actual service, the aggregate cost of operation, now about \$1,400,000,000 per year, would be reduced by about \$250,000,000. This result would require the installation of power plants delivering about 12,500,000 kilowatt-hours per annum; and assuming a radius of transmission of 150 miles, it appears that a maximum output of about 2,800,000 kilowatts would be enough to operate the entire railway service of the United States as it existed in 1905. Compared with this magnificent scheme the proposition under consideration in Switzerland appears trifling. The smaller plan, however, may and probably will be put into execution first, and it may furnish experience by which the later and greater undertaking will be guided.

In noting the present status of transportation problems, the progress which has been made in the completion of through communication from the African Cape to Cairo may here be noted. I have already given a general account of this work in these pages, and emphasized the fact that a complete through railroad has not been under contemplation. The route includes railways, lake navigation, and river boat service; and bearing this in mind, it will be seen that a large part of the route has already been developed.

Thus last summer, the all-rail route northward from Cape Town reached Broken Hills, which is 260 miles northeast of the Victoria Falls of the Zambezi. This included the construction of a bridge 1,700 feet long over the Kafue River, making the total length about 2,000 miles from the Cape. It will take 500 miles more of railway to reach the southern end of Tanganyika, this long and narrow lake extending

almost due north and south for a length of 400 miles, forming an important section of the waterway. From the northern end of Tanganyika there then will remain 600 miles of road to Lado, which is the head of navigation on the Nile. This will permit the use of 1,000 miles of navigation to Khartum, from whence rail and water connections to Cairo are already complete. There thus remains only about 1,100 miles of the 6,000 miles between the Cape and Cairo to be completed.

I have already noted the fact that such a route, while opening up the interior of the continent very effectively, cannot expect to compete with sea-borne transport for through traffic. At the same time it will connect with a number of lateral branches to the eastern coast, and thus form a backbone which cannot fail to strengthen the hold of Great Britain upon the heart of Africa.

Another step forward in the improvement of transport conditions appears in the proposal to inaugurate a train-ferry service between England and the continent. It is proposed to construct special cross-channel steamers arranged with tracks on the main deck to receive freight cars and thus permit the trans-shipment of merchandise without unloading and reloading the cars. The plans include specially designed platforms at the landings, to enable the trains to be shipped and unshipped at all stages of the tides, and the details of the system appear to have been very fully worked out. Train ferries are by no means new, and it is altogether possible that such a system may be put into operation on the Channel. It must be remembered, however, that, as compared with the large installations of a similar character in the United States, the greater tidal movement and the much rougher water form obstacles against which existing precedents give little guidance.

Mention has recently been made in these pages of the effort to improve the incandescent electric lamp, both as a source of a satisfactory illumination and also as a more efficient device for the conversion of energy. In the last of these reviews I spoke of the progress which had been made with metallic filaments as substitutes for carbon, and especially of the development and manufacture of the tungsten lamp. The economy of the new filaments is noteworthy. Thus, the carbon-filament lamp now in general use requires about four watts per mean spherical candle-power of illumination produced, while the tantalum lamp has double the efficiency, consuming only two watts per candle. The osmium lamp gives a candle-power with 1.5 watts, while the tungsten lamp is claimed to require but one watt per candle-power, or one-fourth the amount of electrical energy now consumed by the carbon-filament incandescent lamp.

The latest candidate for favor as an incandescent lamp is the so-called "helion" filament lamp. This name has been given by the discoverers, Messrs. Parker and Clark, to a lamp made with a non-metallic filament, the constitution of which is not yet fully disclosed, but which is said to consist mainly of silicon. The current consumption of the new lamp appears to be about the same as that claimed for the tungsten lamp, that is, one watt per candle-power; but in addition to its efficiency the helion lamp is stated to possess other valuable features, such as an extreme whiteness of light, a long life, and a maintenance of a high efficiency up to the end of the life of the filament. The extent to which these advantages will be maintained in commercial service remains to be demonstrated, but the appearance of another vigorous candidate for favor confirms the feeling that a practical successor for the carbon-filament lamp will be found.

In the course of his efforts to direct the great sources of power in nature to the use and convenience of man, the engineer sometimes finds that he has undertaken problems which either refuse to be solved, or else which oppose very serious resistance to direction and control. A notable example appears in the break in the Colorado River, resulting in the flooding of the Salton Sink, and the interference with an important part of the work of irrigating the Imperial Valley, in Southern California.

The original plan of the company undertaking the irrigation of the Imperial Valley was to utilize the channel of the Alamo River as a canal, this stream running parallel to the Colorado River for several miles. In order to facilitate the delivery of water from the Colorado into the Alamo, a cut was made through the bank dividing the two channels; but this cut was rapidly enlarged by reason of a sudden rise in the river, and the overflow of water flowed over the sloping plain beyond until it began to fill the depression in the lower part of the valley, 300 feet below the level of the sea. The result was the formation of an artificial lake, having an area of about 500 square miles, with an average depth of 78 feet, the water flowing through a break in the river bank nearly 3,000 feet wide, at a rate of more than 10,000 cubic feet per second.

Six different attempts have been made to close the gap, and turn the waters back into the channel of the Colorado River. After most strenuous efforts, the opening was successfully dammed early in November, only to be followed by a fresh break further down, and through this opening the water again flowed into the valley. The damage caused by the break includes the washing of some 30,000 acres of fertile land into the newly formed Salton Sea, the destruction of about fifty miles of

track of the Southern Pacific Railway, and the wiping out of the salt industry formerly existing in the Salton Sink.

The importance of closing the breaks and controlling the flow of the Colorado River to its proper channel will be seen when it is understood that the homes and farms of 10,000 inhabitants of the Imperial Valley are imperilled, while the work of the United States Reclamation Service is also jeopardized. The task is one for the engineer, and he will doubtless prove equal to it, even though the first attempts at control have proved discouraging.

As one of the essential elements in the control of traffic between the Atlantic and the Pacific across the Isthmus of Panama, the Panama Railroad has necessarily been included, and the road passed into the hands of the United States Government at the same time that work on the canal was begun. Notwithstanding the existence of this railroad, the Mexican Government has proceeded with the construction of the Tehuantepec Railroad, and with the opening of this new line an important route of traffic has been placed at the service of the public.

The terminal ports of the Tehuantepec Railway are Coatzacoalcas, on the Gulf of Campeche, and Salina Cruz, on the Pacific, these points being 125 miles distant in a straight line, or about 190 miles by the route of the railway. The maximum elevation is about 850 feet above sea level, and the line has been thoroughly well built and equipped and is in excellent shape to handle the traffic already available. In addition to the construction of the railway the improvement of the harbors was also a necessity, and this portion of the work has already been effectively carried out. The result is a road, which, by reason of its advantageous location, is able to compete with the Panama Railroad and also with the transcontinental railways of the United States; and it is possible that for some classes of merchandise it may be able to meet effectively the competition of the Panama Canal itself, when that great waterway is opened for traffic.

An interesting feature of the Tehuantepec Railway is the fact that oil fuel is used on the locomotives instead of wood or coal, the local supply rendering this a most desirable system, insuring independence of imported fuel.

Reference has been made in these reviews to the efforts to develop the capacity of internal waterways, especially in Central Europe, and notwithstanding the growth of railway transport the greater economy of the canal and the canalized river has enabled it to hold its own, and even to increase its traffic. Recent data concerning the traffic on the

Rhine may be cited to show that water-borne transport has steadily increased. Thus the traffic on the Rhine has grown from 750,000 tons to 17,500,000 tons in the past fifty years, and of this 16,000,000 tons is coal, towed up-stream from the Ruhr district. The river has been so improved that boats of 1,500 tons burden can go up as far as Mannheim.

Some of the recent barges on the Rhine have been equipped with suction gas producer plants and engines, driving screw propellers, and satisfactory service is secured by this motive power instead of steam. The present charges of about one-half pfennig per ton-kilometer are considered rather low, and higher tariffs have been considered; but the river traffic has to compete with railways on both banks, and so it is more probable that the effort will be made to develop the more economical form of motive power to meet the competition.

I have referred more than once to the fact that the efforts which have been directed toward aerial navigation in the past few years have been largely due to the development of the light and powerful internal-combustion motor. In this respect the automobile has doubtless stimulated effort which has led to important results in allied lines of work. At the recent exhibition of the Aero Club in New York this important feature was emphasized by some of the exhibits. Thus the eight-cylinder air-cooled Curtis motor, of thirty horse-power, weighed only 125-pounds, or 4.16 pounds per horse-power, while the four-cylinder engine designed by the Wright brothers for use with their new aeroplane weighed 160 pounds for thirty horse-power. So far the lightest motor yet built is the machine constructed in 1903 by Professor Langley, this being a five-cylinder water-cooled gasoline motor which weighed 200 pounds and developed 52.4 horse-power, 3.8 pounds per horse-power.

It may be practically accepted that, in designing aeronautical apparatus, motors weighing four pounds per horse-power are available. With the provision of such motors, and stimulated by the various prizes which have been offered for successful aeroplane flights, it seems that positive results should soon be recorded.

In discussing the effects of the earthquake and the fire at San Francisco, I called attention to the capabilities of reinforced concrete for resisting vibration, and emphasized the importance of using such construction in rebuilding the damaged portions of the city. It is very evident that many of the new buildings will be designed in reinforced concrete, and already some important structures of this type are under way in San Francisco. According to the report of the National Board of Fire Underwriters, less than five per cent of the reinforced-concrete

floors in the city were damaged, and the few complete buildings of steel and concrete came through the ordeal practically unscathed. It is reported that already there is hardly a single block in the burned district of San Francisco in which there is not one or more reinforced-concrete buildings in course of erection, so that confidence in the value of the system appears to be fully established.

One of the most important building undertakings at present under way appears in the huge structure in the lower part of New York City forming the terminal of the Hudson Companies' tunnel system. The tunnels themselves extend from the station of the Pennsylvania Railroad in Jersey City to the block between Fulton and Cortlandt Streets, on Church Street in Manhattan, these tunnels being two independent tubes, forced through the mud by the shield system, and diverging as they approach the New York side so that one tunnel enters at Cortlandt Street and the other at Fulton Street. This arrangement renders it practicable to arrange the tracks in a multiple loop in the basement of the terminal building, there being five tracks running under the building across from Cortlandt to Fulton Street.

The terminal, to all intents and purposes, above ground, will be a pair of great office buildings, twenty-two stories in height, the base having an area of 400 feet by 180 feet, the foundations extending seventy-eight feet down to solid rock. These buildings will contain 4,000 offices, and it is estimated that 25,000 people will be housed in the structure during business hours, the population of a large city. The vertical transport of this population is to be effected by thirty-nine elevators, and probably the greater portion of the occupants will travel daily to and from the northern part of New Jersey through the tunnels and be transferred vertically by the lifts to their respective floors.

Structurally, the most important portion of the building is the foundation, since it has not only to support the structure, but also to form the railway station; and as the soil is permeable to water it was found necessary to enclose the entire base in a concrete wall forming a box, pierced at the ends with five openings to provide for the entering and departing trains. This concrete wall is eight feet thick, built in sections fifteen feet long in caissons, the joints being dowed together with cylinders of rammed concrete. This building is doubtless an example of what may be expected in the design of modern railway terminals. The great train shed, with its high arched roof, intended to provide for the escape of steam and smoke, is no longer required when electricity is the motive power; and since, in nearly every case in the future, railways may be expected to make their entrances into large cities below the surface

level, the whole of the valuable area above ground will be available for commercial purposes.

The development of electric traction, therefore, with its application to main-line service, is evidently destined to work many other changes than those which immediately appear; and among the early effects of the abolition of the steam locomotives from the limits of the larger cities will undoubtedly be the disappearance of the great terminal railroad station as such, its identity becoming merged in that of the business buildings of which it will form only a portion.

The success which has attended the trials of the British battle-ship *Dreadnought*, and the preponderance which the possession of vessels of such speed and armament has given to the British Navy, have caused other naval powers to make plans for similar and even more powerful fighting machines. The designs of the Bureau of Construction and Repair of the United States Navy Department provide for a battle-ship of 20,000 tons displacement, or 2,000 tons more than the *Dreadnought*, the speed being the same, the length being ten feet more, and the beam three feet greater. Since the armament is planned to be the same, consisting of ten twelve-inch guns, it follows that the additional displacement will be available for greater armor protection, and for the provision of increased stability.

Japan has also entered the lists with a new battle-ship of increased displacement and power; the *Satsuma*, recently launched, being of 19,200 tons displacement, and the proposed speed twenty knots. This vessel, it is stated, will have an armament of four twelve-inch guns and twelve ten-inch guns, these latter being mounted in six turrets of two guns each.

In Germany the increase in the power of the navy is a more difficult matter than with other powers, mainly on account of the shallowness of harbors, and because of the limitations of the Kiel Canal. There is talk of an increase of dimensions in the canal, an essential undertaking if larger battle-ships are to be built and handled promptly in either the Baltic or the North Sea; and this work, as well as the improvement of the North-Sea ports, must be carried through together with the ship-building, before the full benefit of an increase in the power and size of battle-ships can be secured.

Much has been said and written during the past few years about the so-called "high-speed" tool steels, the improved materials from which tools have been made enabling the machining operations upon iron and steel to be performed far more rapidly than had hitherto been possible. It has been realized that the full advantages of the new cutting tools

could not be attained unless the other elements in machine-shop operation could also be speeded up, and hence the introduction of the "high-speed" steel became necessarily involved in the broader problem of works management.

In his presidential address before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, Mr. F. W. Taylor, one of the discoverers of "high-speed" steel, discussed the art of cutting metals in an exhaustive manner, giving the results of himself and his associates covering a period of more than twenty-five years in a number of the most important shops in the United States.

The mere possession of a cutting material of the highest capacity is of small value unless to it is added a knowledge of the best forms of tools for the manifold operations of the machine shops, together with the proper speeds and feeds for different materials.

When all the elements of the problem, including the cutting tool, the machine in which it is used, and the material to be cut, are considered, it appears that there may be as many as twelve variables to be taken into account. Ordinarily this would appear to render the problem indeterminate, but it has been found practicable to develop special forms of slide rules or mechanical computers by which the proper speeds and feeds may be found accurately and practically in the shop. The new system requires that the workman be given specific directions as to each task, the result being that the full value of the new cutting methods and materials is obtained without any uncertainty, and both employer and workman reap the benefit. Mr. Taylor maintains that by the adoption of these methods the output of almost any shop may be doubled, while at the same time an average increase of about thirty-five per cent in the earning capacity of the men for themselves is secured.

During the past year there has been an unusually large number of serious accidents on American railroads, and, in consequence, much criticism on the part of the general public as to the management and administration of the roads. In response the railway authorities have maintained, in some instances at least, that the public is to a certain extent responsible for the conditions which have led to many disasters, inasmuch as the demand for high speeds and frequent service compels greater risks to be incurred. There is much truth on both sides.

For several years the demands upon the traffic facilities in the United States have been increasing at a continually advancing rate. In the endeavor to meet these demands, the railways have extended their equipment, laid heavier rails, strengthened bridges, improved rolling stock, thus making obvious and earnest efforts to "catch up with the procession."

Fast trains, formerly considered rather as luxuries, and hardly expected to meet their expenses, have latterly been in such demand as to require duplication and repetition. That the public has demanded these things is undoubtedly true, and the railroads have made vigorous efforts to meet the demand. A rapid and continuous increase in capacity and equipment, however, is not sufficient in itself: there must be a corresponding extension in the personnel, a matter altogether different from the expansion of the mechanical equipment.

At the same time, there is one thing which may and should be done on the part of the railroads to restore confidence in some measure and give evidence of good faith. The block system, already installed on many of the great trunk lines, should be made a block system in fact as well as in name. So long as trains are permitted to pass block signals "under control" on any pretence, the block system becomes a source of danger rather than a protection. The block should be absolute and unconditional, and if it cannot be made so by human volition it can be made so by mechanical obstruction. If it cannot be made a moral impossibility for a train to be run past an opposing block signal it can be made a physical impossibility, and this much, at least, the public has a right to demand. If the higher speeds and greater capacities are furnished in response to the public demand, the demand for a positive and absolute block system should also be heeded.

It may well be conceded that a largely increased personnel of experience and reliability cannot be furnished at short notice, and in this respect the inadequacy of the railway administrations to meet the demand for higher efficiency of operation can be explained. That this should be construed into permitting recklessness by no means follows; at the worst an inadequate personnel should result only in delay, not in disaster.

Both in the United States and in Europe accidents have occurred by reason of failure to readjust the elevation of the outer rail on curves to meet the higher train speeds. The so-called "banking" of the track on curves was familiar to the general public a few years ago in connection with bicycle races; and everyone realized that the higher the speed and the sharper the curve, the greater the necessity for an inward inclination of the vehicle to meet the increased centrifugal action. Such a provision has been made on railway curves since the early days of railroading; but there is no doubt that in many cases the elevation of the outer rail has not been changed when a schedule of higher speeds has been put in force.

In any case the accidents have increased with alarming frequency, doubtless as the resultant of more than one cause, and it is the duty of

the engineer to seek out the causes and apply the remedies. That he can do so we are confident, and furthermore we are confident that it can be done without materially affecting the efficiency and capacity of the railways. In fact, freedom from accidents and from the delays of which the accidents themselves are the causes should increase the efficiency of the whole railroad system.

Several months ago I described in these reviews the construction and operation of the Kjellin induction furnace for the electrical manufacture of steel, and showed the possibilities of the process. The views then expressed appear to have been confirmed by subsequent practical experience with the process, and it now appears that the Kjellin furnace gives a better electrical efficiency than furnaces making direct use of the electric arc. At the same time there are other features to be considered, and recent experience with the Héroult furnace, at Remscheid, in Bavaria, has shown some commercial advantages for the arc type.

It is generally understood that electricity cannot compete directly with the older process of the blast furnace for the manufacture of pig iron from the ore, under ordinary conditions. In some parts of the world, where fuel is scarce and expensive, and hydraulic power abundant and cheap, electric smelting may become commercially profitable; but at the present time the most satisfactory application of electricity in the steel works is for the refining of the highest grades of steel, the value of the product justifying the cost of the operation.

The Héroult furnace takes the molten steel from an open-hearth furnace, and after exposure to the intense heat of the electric arc in the presence of a neutral slag and of carbon, it is found to be almost wholly deoxidized. The carbon content of the product is then found by analysis and the proper mixture of iron and carbon introduced to give any desired composition to the final product. The high quality of the steel made in this way appears to depend both upon the very high temperatures employed, and the possibility of controlling accurately the constitution of the product, since nothing is introduced into the charge except by deliberate intention and in predetermined proportions. Commercially the success of the plant at Remscheid has been such that large extensions are required to enable the demand for the product to be met.

One of the closing acts of Congress was the completion of the legislation relating to the production of untaxed alcohol, this extending the permission from the great distilleries to the individual farmers, and enabling alcohol fuel to be made at any time and in any quantities, the product being delivered into locked tanks to await the official inspection

and denaturization. There appears to be now no good reason why cheap alcohol may not be freely made by any one, and this freedom should go far toward preventing an artificial limitation of the quantity and the price.

In this connection, it is interesting to note that a practical comparative test of the fuel values of alcohol, kerosene, and gasoline has recently been made, the trial including a run from Boston to New York by a Maxwell touring-car using denaturized alcohol entirely, and accompanied by a similar car on which the fuel was gasoline and kerosene. No change was made in the engines using the alcohol fuel, and hence high thermal efficiency was not to be expected; but the reliability of the alcohol was fully demonstrated, even in an engine manifestly unsuited for it.

As a matter of fact, the fuel consumption for the run of 250 miles was forty and three-fourths gallons of alcohol, as against twenty-four and three-fourths gallons of gasoline and thirty-three and three-fourths gallons of kerosene. At the price of thirty-seven cents per gallon for denatured alcohol and twenty cents for gasoline the alcohol fuel cost nearly two and one-half times as much as gasoline per car mile. It has been shown that in an engine of long stroke and high compression, the thermal efficiency of alcohol may reach ten per cent higher than that of gasoline; and under these conditions alcohol must be bought at twenty-two cents a gallon to compete with gasoline at twenty cents.

An interesting feature of the trial was the low cost of the kerosene as a fuel for automobiles, the consumption being only a little higher than that of gasoline, while the price is much lower. With the present methods of carburetting and in the existing forms of engines, kerosene is not burned to advantage, emitting much smoke and smell, and forming a heavy deposit of carbon. If, however, some modification of a high-compression engine, such as the Diesel motor, were employed, effecting a perfect combustion with a very high thermal efficiency, there is every reason to believe that kerosene would be largely used as a fuel for automobiles.

It must be remembered, however, that the fuel consumption is but one element in the operative cost of a motor, and usually not the most important element. The fuel cost, therefore, should be given only its proportional share of consideration in choosing the fuel for the machine. If alcohol can be shown to be reliable, convenient, and not excessively expensive, it is certain to come into extensive use, and there is little doubt that improvements in the engines, adapting them to the new fuel, will rapidly follow.

One method which appears to possess possibilities is the use of alcohol

and acetylene together. By spraying the alcohol through an atomizer, and passing the spray through a layer of calcium carbide, the water in the alcohol acts to produce acetylene gas; and the mixture of alcohol, acetylene, and air is drawn into the engine cylinder during the suction stroke and ignited in the same manner as gasoline. The violence of the explosion of the acetylene is modified by the alcohol, and the action of the mixture gives an effect in the cylinder similar to gasoline, while overcoming the sluggishness which is experienced with alcohol alone at high speeds. This method, which is due to Messrs. Barker and White, of New York, is but one of the attempts which have been made to render existing designs of motors suitable for alcohol. Another, to which reference has already been made in these reviews, is that of Dr. Schreber, the liquid alcohol being injected directly into the cylinder during the compression stroke, and volatilized by the heat of the compression.

Few persons realize the rapid growth which has taken place in the past few years in the use of the telephone as a means of communication. Statistics issued at the close of the year 1906 show that there were in use in the United States alone more than 7,000,000 instruments, while an aggregate of a little over 6,000,000 miles of wire was used for telephone service. The telephone industry gives employment to 90,000 persons in the United States, an increase of 171 per cent in six years, while during the same period the number of stations has increased 239 per cent and the wire mileage 349 per cent.

There is little doubt that much of this increase is due to the general adoption of the so-called "message-rate" system in place of the flat annual charge formerly in vogue. By making the charges proportional to the number of calls, the use of the telephone has been widely extended both because of the greater willingness of people to become subscribers under such conditions and because the system gives an incentive to the local telephone companies to give good service and encourage the use of the telephone.

Another cause for the increase in the number of telephones in use is doubtless the extending number of large business buildings in various cities, since the telephone is an absolute necessity in the modern tall building, making it possible to transact business as well from the twentieth story as from the ground floor. The installation of the telephone in every suite in the modern hotel and large apartment-house also accounts for a portion of the increase.

HENRY HARRISON SUPLEE.

FINANCE.

It is not often that general feeling in and around the financial market, regarding the financial situation, undergoes so sudden and violent a transformation as it did at the opening of the present year. In the situation itself there was no change whatever. Cautious financiers had pointed out, during many months, that an unwholesome financial position had been created; that our borrowings from Europe, purely for purposes of Wall Street speculation, had reached unprecedented figures; that the Bank of England had been driven to defensive expedients such as had not been adopted in a generation, except under stress of war or panic; and that it behooved both the financial and the industrial communities to move very carefully. All this had been said as early as last September, when the stock market was being stirred up to a new frenzy of excitement. It attracted little attention then for two reasons: first, that similar warnings, against a similar market a year before, had not been realized during 1906; secondly, that so long as the stock market continued to go up, and the bank positions to be maintained above a deficit, not only Wall Street but the business community persisted in declaring that the general situation was too favorable to be in any way upset.

At the close of 1905, under somewhat similar circumstances, the pressure to force up prices on the Stock Exchange continued up to the very last week of December, and in the face of a 125-per-cent rate for call money. Not only this, but when the distribution of capital in interest and dividends occurred in the first days of January, and the money market accordingly eased off, a short and decisive further advance occurred on the Stock Exchange. It was reasoned in Wall Street that the result at the beginning of 1907 ought reasonably to be the same, and the argument was reinforced by the fact that money rates did not tighten as severely at the end of last December as they had done in the December preceding. For instance, in the last week of December, 1906, the highest rate for call money was eighteen per cent, while the same week the year before the 100-per-cent mark was passed.

December was not over, however, before the Stock Exchange suddenly discovered that some factors were at work in the situation which did not seem to have operated a year before. The month was fairly well advanced

when stocks were still rising on news of large fresh issues of railway securities with a handsome bonus to shareholders. At the opening of the month, the Great Northern Railway had announced the issue of \$60,000,000 new stock, subscriptions from existing shareholders to be received at par, when the old stock was selling at 231 on the market, instalments being payable up to April, 1908. Northern Pacific had announced \$93,000,000 new stock, obtainable by shareholders at par, while the old stock sold at 224, instalment payments running up to January, 1909. On top of these two announcements the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul had announced \$100,000,000 new stock at par to shareholders, while the old common stock was selling at 199. Now, it was obvious that the terms of subscription in each of these three cases made what are called the subscription rights a matter of genuine profit to the shareholder, always providing, however, that the existing price was reasonable and likely to be maintained until the subscription rights should be marked off.

It was on the supposition that these "rights" would have an exceptionally large cash value that the price of the old stock had been pushed up to such extravagant figures, Northern Pacific and Great Northern both selling at prices which made their net dividend yield less than three per cent, and this in a market where six per cent and upward was ruling for almost every kind of money accommodation. Until these announcements had been made, the idea that the market ought to advance on the news of them seemed to hold sway in Wall Street. Within a very few days of the announcements, however, the Stock Exchange suddenly seemed to come to its senses, and to realize that whether a bonus was granted to existing shareholders or not, the placing of \$200,000,000 new railway securities on a market already notoriously short of capital could not possibly be a favorable development.

This new feeling was increased by the blundering policy of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul directors, the clumsiness of whose arrangements for their own stock subscription offset whatever favorable impression may have been gained from that of the other two railways. Although Great Northern and Northern Pacific had refrained from asking for any cash subscriptions until the new year, the St. Paul directors called for a \$10,000,000 instalment on the subscription for the new stock, to be made at the very time when the December strain on money was likely to be most severe. Not only this, but by an inexcusably careless arrangement, the privilege of stock subscriptions was denied to all shareholders except those who held "round lots" of stock, thus depriving the small investors of whatever benefit the operation might confer.

Whether it was this performance which caused the trouble, or merely a realization of what these new stock issues actually foreshadowed, the stock market, which had been thus far so stubbornly held up, suddenly gave way. Great Northern stock dropped twenty points in a single week and seven points more the next. One after another, stocks which had been inflated to an absurdly high level, during the autumn movement, gave way, and the entire market broke with more or less demoralization. The question instantly was asked in Wall Street, who were the sellers and why had they been forced to sell. It was well understood that up to that time the market had been largely, if not chiefly, under the guidance of the so-called "Union Pacific clique." Some very heavy selling on the rising market which followed the Treasury's announcement, early in December, of a further \$10,000,000 cash deposit in the banks, was assumed by many people as meaning that the so-called "inside" group had sold out then and left the market to itself. Elsewhere it was taken for granted that liquidation for this same account had started then and was continued up to the close of the year, and possibly longer. On the other hand, it was evident, as the December decline went on, that many other people besides the authors of the autumn "boom" in stocks had been confronted with loss by the sudden fall in values and compelled to sell.

I have spoken thus far of the situation as reflected in the stock market, because at that time all interest converged upon Wall Street. We shall now have to look at another side of the question, involving not only the stock market, but the money market generally, and the industrial situation as a whole. During the autumn, two somewhat conflicting predictions had been made regarding the month of January. It had been contended, largely in business quarters, that money rates were certain to continue very high during January; but, notwithstanding this, Wall Street had held to its expectation of a rise in stock on the basis of the January disbursements. Both predictions failed to materialize and the reason possibly was that the December market itself had moved contrary to almost all expectations. Tight money did not continue during January; instead, call-money rates eased off so rapidly that in the closing week of January the highest rate was three and one half per cent; but, on the other hand, efforts to cause an upward movement on the Stock Exchange failed entirely. This was not all, however. In place of the cheerful predictions which had marked the opening of 1906, the year 1907 began with forecasts and warnings in responsible quarters such as could hardly be described otherwise than as pessimistic in the extreme. I quoted in the last number of THE FORUM from James J. Hill's state-

ment of November regarding the railway situation. The January predictions went much further.

Prof. Laughlin of the economic department of the University of Chicago had this to say:

In conclusion, there seem to be no immediate evidences of a crisis in the very near future. But no reform of our currency, no combination of large financial interests, will prevent the inevitable overexpansion in due course of time, which must finally be followed by liquidation. Even now the materials for over-confidence may be gathering. The speculation in real estate, which is usually the latest phenomenon of a high range of prices, is already more or less apparent. But the production of new wealth salable to all the world goes on yet as a basis of general security.

Prof. John Bates Clark of Columbia diagnosed the situation thus:

The caution of 1903 is no longer so evident. A much more extensive assimilation of industrial and mining securities has taken place and speculation in land, usually the last feature before a crisis, has gained headway. . . . How exaggerated have been the estimates of future income and how great will be the corresponding shrinkage when the full facts shall become known? The prophet who could answer this question with authority might avert much evil, but the people have insight enough to know that some shrinkage will occur and that the sooner it comes the smaller it will be. Healthful caution now will probably avert the calamity which a wholesale collapse of values would otherwise bring. Recklessness now — general infection with the virus of a speculative fever — will cause the crisis to arrive at its scheduled date and with all needed severity.

This was the view of Prof. Andrew of the Harvard University economic department:

It is then simply because the United States has enjoyed a fabulous prosperity for an unusually long period, that one may conclude that the situation to-day only requires some sharp blow to the general confidence to precipitate a new movement of liquidation and reorganization.

Mr. Stuyvesant Fish, late president of the Illinois Central Railway, went still further, stating his opinion as follows:

In point of time a great industrial crisis is due, and there are many indications of its being imminent. Despite the unprecedented output of gold, money is dear the world over, and dear because of high prices and activity in trade. . . . Within the past year there have been tremendous losses of capital in the destruction of San Francisco, and in the less awful calamity at Valparaiso. . . . Prices of commodities are above the normal and rising. Labor all over the world is dearer than ever before; and the tendency is toward higher wages and shorter hours; conditions which are economically wasteful as regards product, whatever their effect may be on the laboring class.

And to this Mr. Fish added his conviction that the New York Stock Exchange had absorbed in its speculations such quantities of the capital of other markets, American and European, as to render the situation

precarious at New York, if it had to give up the money, and on the lending markets, if it did not.

These statements, published in the "Journal of Commerce," were accompanied by forecasts from other practical financiers, most of whom expressed belief in prosperity for at least the greater part of 1907, but all of whom urged caution and expressed doubts about what would occur next year. A few weeks later, President Stickney of the Chicago Great Western Railway publicly expressed this view of the situation:

Most of the railways have uncompleted work which will be finished and give employment to as many men this year as last. But all railways will be slow to commence new work, so that in 1908 they will give employment to fewer men. This will be the starting point of the unemployed.

President Truesdale of the Lackawanna, though expressing doubt over the more distant results of the increase in cost of doing business and in the public hostility to corporations, said somewhat later to his shareholders:

The present outlook for business of every kind continues most promising, and so far as can now be discerned, nothing is indicated for the coming year other than that the wonderful activity and prosperity of the year 1906 will be duplicated in 1907.

At the same time, Mr. James J. Hill supplemented his earlier forecasts by the following prediction:

The sails of prosperity are being reefed. The year 1908 may be a hard year, and many thousands of men may then be out of work. . . . General policies of retrenchment are under way. Less money is being spent on new works. The effect of this movement is being felt at present, especially by the manufacturing interests, in the falling off of orders. The beginning of this movement is very evident in Chicago. . . . In a way it is a good thing. It is better so, as the curtailment is gradual, otherwise there might be a sudden slump, with serious results.

To this, in his turn, Mr. Hill's railway rival, Mr. E. H. Harriman, added, as his own opinion, after the stock market had broken badly, the suggestion that, although the money disturbances will become dangerous, and with bad effect on finance in general, whenever hard times should reappear in this country, as they doubtless will in time, nevertheless:

There is nothing in the present situation which would lead me to believe that there is any danger in the immediate future. They may not come within the lifetime of any man now living.

I have quoted these various predictions, from both professional and non-professional experts, in order to show the somewhat remarkable drift of opinion in one direction. It requires only a very cursory glance to show that with the single exception of Mr. Fish's, the forecasts place

the era of trouble a considerable distance ahead. This is true even of such explicit forecasts of the three railway presidents, each of whom made his prophecy apply to 1908 and assigned some particular reasons for not expecting serious industrial trouble during 1907. But of a forecast of trouble due only in 1908, it must be said that neither the financial nor the industrial markets are apt to trouble themselves very seriously twelve months ahead. It has, in fact, been very generally conceded that 1908 will at least be a year of hesitation and cautious movement in American industry. If there were no other reason, the fact that a presidential election is scheduled for that year would provide sufficient reason for expecting a halt in business plans. As for the predictions of the economists above quoted — some of which went to show that the “twenty-year financial crisis” should be normally due and will probably arrive around 1913 — that is distinctly too remote a date to disturb the plans of industry. They would leave Wall Street’s mind, at any rate, almost as calm as it is left by Mr. Harriman’s prediction. Such forecasts are interesting chiefly for this reason, that if it be conceded that the twenty-year panic is due six years from now, it would equally follow, from the teaching of experience, that the general tendency of American prosperity would henceforth be slowly downward. But these are general considerations.

I have pointed out already that the two most prevalent predictions, at the opening of the year, were that the money market would continue high in January and that the stock market, nevertheless, would advance, for a time at least, as it did in January, 1905. The reason why both expectations were disappointed may have lain in the stock market with which December closed. The wholesale liquidation of stocks, between the middle of that month and the end of the year, averted the extreme money stringency which had been expected in the last week of December. Continuance of that liquidation into the month of January promptly did away with all hope of the traditional “January boom”; but, as the Stock Exchange liquidation released more and more of the tied-up capital, the strain on the money market necessarily relaxed. January opened with call money at forty per cent; the first week ended with a five-per-cent rate; and it went still lower before the month was over. Time money, starting at the seven-per-cent rate, was promptly down to five. Meanwhile, the bank surplus, largely because of the reduction in loans, increased from \$147,825, at the opening of January, to \$15,562,800, at the end of the month. The situation, then, which existed as the year opened, gave what might be called a pathetic comment on the average Wall Street prediction. What had been said in Stock-Exchange circles a month before was that prices might go up even in the face of very tight money,

but that if money by any chance were to grow easy the stock-market advance would become uncontrollable. Easy money was established early in the month and Stock-Exchange prices continued to decline. Not until February, when there came a fortnight's upward reaction of prices, did the movement turn.

The noteworthy incident at the opening of the year, and one which had much to do both with the course of Stock-Exchange prices and the course of the money market, was the borrowing by the railways. In reviewing on these pages the episodes of 1903, we saw how the great American railways were driven to raise money on their notes at five or six per cent, and in some cases even at a higher rate. It will be recalled that the "rich men's panic" of that year, and the profound distrust of American finance which temporarily seized upon both home and foreign capital left the railways in a peculiar position. They had contracted for large expenditures for improvement purposes, and in some cases had actually done the work, paying for it in temporary loans from banks, their expectation being that in due course they would sell bonds or stocks through which the incurred liabilities might be paid off. Confronted with the impracticable investment market of 1903, they had the choice of two alternatives: to offer long-term bonds at a price sufficiently below the ordinary to attract a reluctant investor, or to raise the money on a one- or two-year loan, paying a high rate for such accommodation. It will be remembered that the railways invariably adopted the second of these expedients, with the result that in 1903 not less than \$150,000,000 of these high-rate, short-term notes were issued. There were not lacking critics who pointed out at the time the danger of the expedient, the possibility that when the notes matured the market might still be unfavorable for borrowing, and, more particularly, that this recourse to floating debt was not a safe habit to contract. As it happened, however, everything went well. The drastic liquidation of 1903 brought the markets of 1904 into a thoroughly comfortable position; by the summer of 1904 a broad and satisfactory demand was provided for new railway securities; and between then and the end of the following year, as prosperity manifestly continued, practically all the note issues of 1903 had been taken up and replaced with long-term bonds.

This reminiscence is in point, for the reason that the experience of July and the following months of 1903 was made the text for the operations of January, 1907. Foreign markets which had made a neat turn in the six-per-cent railway loans of 1903 were ready to try the same experiment again; so was the home investor. The railways meanwhile recalled how comfortably the experiment had ended in 1903, and were

not at all disturbed as to the outlook in 1907. In the end, upward of \$200,000,000 in short-term notes of this sort were issued.

I have said that this wholesale issue of railway notes was bound to exert considerable influence on both stock and money markets. It did not affect them both alike. Stock-Exchange prices, in so far as they made the net dividend yield of a stock to the investor less than six per cent, were obviously a less attractive investment than the railway notes. Furthermore, it was a fair inference from the general operation that the railway notes had fixed the price for new investment capital. To an extent, the same reasoning applied to the market for long-term bonds, though the fact that these were a permanent lien upon the properties concerned brought them somewhat out of the sphere of competition with the railway notes.

Thus, the natural influence of the railway-note issues on Stock-Exchange prices was to bring them down, and was thus unfavorable to the general situation. On the other hand, railway notes, in so far as Europe subscribed to them, provided a recourse as lucky as it was unexpected for meeting the payments due on maturing three-months' loans abroad. It had been known that large amounts of these European loans would reach maturity in January, and for that reason not a little apprehension had been expressed over the possibility that remittances in payment would so force up the rate of exchange as to compel large exports of gold from New York at a time when cash was urgently needed to keep up bank reserves. Whether this would have happened or not under ordinary circumstances is a matter of conjecture; but the railway notes, of which not less than \$100,000,000 were sold abroad, promptly turned the scales — so much so that at the opening of February exchange on London once more declined to the gold-importing point and we actually imported several million dollars gold from London. This was another complete reversal of expectations. Estimates, made in the best-posted European financial circles, of our market's floating foreign debt at the close of 1906, placed it at \$400,000,000; some estimates made it higher. It was reduced in January, and the natural expectation was that such reduction would involve heavy remittances from New York. This was the point at which the foreign subscriptions to our railway notes played an important part.

The more general question, as to the safety and propriety of this wholesale recourse to railway notes, I already discussed in the columns of THE FORUM when the expedient was so generally adopted in 1903. I pointed out then that whatever might be said as to the safety of the experiment at any given time, the financial history of the railways in this country showed it to have been in the main a dangerous expe-

dient with very bad results. In 1873, the formidable panic was very largely brought to a crisis by the inability of the Northern Pacific and one or two other railways to meet the notes which they had issued on a somewhat similar basis and which had been at that time endorsed by prominent banking houses. This default of the railways carried down the bankers, notably the celebrated house of Jay Cooke & Co., whose services had been distinguished in financing the Civil War.

It will be observed that the plan of endorsement by banking houses, adopted in the note issues of the seventies, has not been repeated at the present time. The reason for the difference is that this year, and for a good many years past, the railways have been able to offer security for the notes, in the shape either of unissued treasury securities of their own, or of stocks and bonds of other railways, bought by them for purposes of investment or control. After the long and expensive experiment in the buying up of one railway's stocks by another, on the community-of-interest theory, it has naturally followed that plenty of collateral of this sort should be in the strong-boxes of railways who are now borrowing on their own notes.

The precedent of 1893 is, however, somewhat interesting in this regard. During the two or three trying years which ended in that panic period, numerous prominent railways had borrowed on their notes, pledging as collateral such treasury securities as they happened to hold. In the case of some of these railways, stocks and bonds which had been acquired on exactly the same plan as those now held by the companies were pledged. The trouble was that as matters went from bad to worse, the railways borrowed more and more on the same basis until at the last they began to present such doubtful collateral as to invite suspicious scrutiny of their affairs. It was then that such companies as the Reading, the Atchison, and the Union Pacific were forced into bankruptcy. I have no purpose of arguing an analogy between either of the two years referred to and the present period. The railways are immensely stronger now than they were in 1893, and the collateral which they have offered is of a vastly superior quality. Nevertheless, the danger underlying a habit of this sort must be honestly pointed out if any progress is to be made in averting some serious trouble in the future. It will probably be safe to say that the worst development of the railway situation this year has been the tone of easy confidence with which this expedient of borrowing on short-term notes at exorbitant rates of interest has been discussed by the railway managers and the banking community.

It was natural, in view of the peculiar circumstances with which the present year began, that comparisons with 1903 should immediately

have been made. That, too, was a year which succeeded a period of rash speculation conducted when bank resources had been excessively drawn upon. It was a year which followed a boom in trade which seemed to have no limit. The produce of the year showed, as has been the case already in 1907, that the market for new stocks and bonds had been choked with the excessive amount of new issues already put out, and in the one year as in the other borrowing corporations were driven to the recourse of short-term, high-rate notes. To what extent other analogies of the two years would present themselves has naturally been a matter of doubt; but in the mood in which Wall Street found itself during January, the temper of the community was such that it was inclined to look for the worst. It will be remembered that in 1903, after a disappointing market during January and a show of distinct weakness during February, the month of March began with a bank surplus almost exhausted, with the Steel Corporation's bond conversion foreshadowing trouble, and with disaster indicated to the Pennsylvania's attempted \$75,000,000 stock issue. In April events moved so rapidly in the same direction that long before the month was over it was evident that what has since been called the rich men's panic was in full swing.

Now enough has been said to show that there are at least superficial analogies between the two years. Whether they are more than superficial is an interesting question which requires consideration from several points of view. To begin with, it may be said that the large quantities of so-called "undigested securities" which overhung the market in 1903 and concerning which Mr. J. P. Morgan gave out his reassuring interview in April have not been exactly paralleled this year. That is to say, the wealthy men of Wall Street, four years ago, had engaged themselves to such an extent in underwriting the issue of new industrial flotations — which they expected would find a ready market and would therefore not come back upon their hands — that they were wholly unprepared for the situation which actually did develop. That situation was that the public absolutely refused to subscribe for the new securities, and that the reckless underwriters accordingly found themselves compelled to take up millions upon millions of securities whose salable value was entirely uncertain. Nothing precisely akin to this exists in the present year. Issues of new securities had in fact been comparatively slight up to the last few weeks of 1906, and a very respectable part of these issues had been placed with real investors. To that extent, the spectacle of large financial interests not only tied hand and foot so far as new investments were concerned, but compelled to throw overboard their high-grade investment holdings to protect the others, has not arisen this year.

But a still more interesting consideration lies in the personal situation of the markets at the opening of the year. It will be recalled that in 1903 the story was on everybody's lips that the whole break in the market was the result of a personal quarrel between great financial interests, one of which had caught the other at a disadvantage and was punishing it through the Stock Exchange. I showed at the time that no such fantastic theory was necessary to explain the situation, and that, although undoubtedly the market's depression was helped by operations for a decline by large capitalists who were not tied up in stocks, still that could only be said to have emphasized a situation which existed before such selling began. It was necessarily admitted, however, that the fact that a rival interest had been caught in a trap and was helpless in the market was a powerful influence in the situation. How then did matters stand from this point of view at the opening of the present year? The case was extremely curious. The financial interests which were caught in a trap and forced into liquidation during 1903 were at the close of 1906 notoriously free from speculative commitments, and ready to take advantage of opportunities for either investment or speculation on the market. They had not been forcing up the market. On the other hand, the financial interest which was believed, and no doubt correctly, to have aggravated the situation of 1903 by selling stocks in enormous quantities and thereby undermining other speculators, could hardly this year have been in the position it found itself in four years ago.

According to all the belief and evidence of the Stock Exchange, it was this interest which had participated in the extravagant speculation for the rise last August and September, and which had undoubtedly assumed in the process an enormous load of stocks. To do this, they had unquestionably borrowed money in enormous sums, on both home and foreign markets; the "finance bill" episode of last autumn was closely connected with their operations. During the autumn there were many indications that these speculators, having misjudged the nature of the market, had not been able to realize on their holdings. Whether at the opening of 1907 they were left with large speculative holdings which could not be disposed of save at a heavy loss has been a question much debated. It need not greatly concern us here except to the extent that the attitude of so large an interest as this is a matter of much concern to the market itself. If, for example, this group of capitalists were actually loaded with stocks which they could not sell at present prices save at a heavy loss, one might have expected that their efforts would be enlisted on the side of recovery. There were those who argued that this was precisely what occurred in February, when the market advanced.

Few people, if any, in financial circles, were prepared for the extraordinary sequel. The February recovery in stocks soon ran its course; with March, the downward drift of prices was resumed. Within the first week of that month, a situation almost without parallel on the New York Stock Exchange was presented. During two days, a rapid fall in prices, with evidence both of "bear" selling and of forced liquidation, demoralized the market. Daily sales on the Exchange rose to figures not matched more than half a dozen times in the institution's history. Suddenly the market turned; one stock, on which some of the heaviest selling was converged, ran up ten points in almost as many minutes, and on enormous buying; with it, the entire market turned to a violent advance. While the Stock Exchange was still wondering whether this extraordinary reversal of things on Wednesday, March 6, meant that the end of forced liquidation had been reached, or that great capitalists not previously in the market had turned buyers, or that the unlucky financiers involved in the collapse had made a last effort at such a show of strength as should scare off their pursuers — and before it was possible even to guess at the answer to the query, the struggle in the stock market was resumed. Unquestionably, what occurred in the next half-dozen days was a battle royal between two groups of enormously wealthy speculators. The episode was no more worthy of being dignified as an economic phenomenon than the fights of Commodore Vanderbilt, Daniel Drew, Jim Fisk, and Jay Gould, in the disreputable and dishonest stock markets with which the world became only too familiar during the decade after the Civil War.

For a week, prices swayed alternately up and down, rising two to five points only to fall back an equal distance, such reversals of the movement often occurring five or six times in the course of a single day. By this time, it became plain that rich speculating capitalists, loaded down with debt for which they could show only stocks with heavily depreciated values, were struggling to save themselves still greater loss, while other financial interests were breaking the market under their feet. The struggle came to a sudden and dramatic end on March 13 and March 14, when a convulsion of forced liquidation seized on the market, driving values down in a decline not paralleled in any day of this generation, save the celebrated May 9 panic of 1901. How the declines of the second and worst of these two days of collapse compared with perhaps the four worst days on the Stock Exchange in the past fifteen years, may be seen from the following table, declines in each case being those of a single day:

	1907. March 14.	1904. Dec. 8.	1903. April 13.	1901. May 9.	1893. July 26.
Amalgamated Copper	18 $\frac{5}{8}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	26	..
Amalgamated Smelting	21	4 $\frac{3}{8}$	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	..
Atchison	9 $\frac{5}{8}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
Brooklyn Rapid Transit	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	3	7 $\frac{7}{8}$	..
Canadian Pacific	6	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{8}$	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	4
Great Northern pref.	11	8	10	10	6
Louisville & Nashville	7 $\frac{7}{8}$	5	3	26 $\frac{1}{4}$	3 $\frac{7}{8}$
Missouri, Kansas & Texas	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	6	1
New York Central	5 $\frac{3}{8}$	3 $\frac{5}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	4
Pennsylvania	9 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{3}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	3
Reading	24 $\frac{3}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{8}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$
Southern Pacific	12 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	2
Union Pacific	25 $\frac{1}{4}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	37	1 $\frac{7}{8}$
United States Steel	4 $\frac{3}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	..
United States Steel pref.	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	7	2 $\frac{5}{8}$	29	..

With this extraordinary break, which came on top of an almost continuous preceding fall of ten to thirty points, the movement culminated. Prices were now so low that, as against the three to four per cent income which dividend-paying stocks would have returned to buyers at last autumn's prices, some of the best-known shares on the list yielded, at the low prices of March 14, from five to seven per cent. The real investor entered the market; the panic was over. But as to who had been forced to throw overboard the huge quantities of stocks in that week of liquidation, is a question even now unsettled. That it was not the outside investor is a certainty; that it was men of enormous wealth, is sufficiently proved by the fact that not one Wall Street failure accompanied the wreck of values. Public belief laid the forced liquidation at the door of the men who started the ill-fated "boom" after Union Pacific's August dividend, and very possibly, this will remain the tradition of the market.

From what we have had occasion already to observe both in this article and in that of last January, it will doubtless be granted that there were reasons enough for a lower range of prices and a great deal of uncertainty as to the investment situation during the season past. It so happened that a large number of the Wall-Street contingent refused to admit the exclusive force of the influences referred to, and assigned as the chief cause of uncertainty what it called the attitude of "persecution" toward the railroads. In general these had reference, of course, to the attitude of President Roosevelt in pressing the bill investing the Interstate Commerce Commission with semi-judicial powers over rates and with larger rights of investigation. Opinions undoubtedly differ in

serious quarters as to the wisdom or unwisdom of provisos enacted into law regarding railroad rates. It had been very generally held and by good authority that the existing law, if properly applied, contained sufficient remedies for such evils as existed. It must be admitted, however, that almost the first trial of the Interstate Commerce Commission's new powers has opened up such an extraordinary field of scandal as to convince very many people not only that some step in restraint of the railroads had been necessary, but that some more and very definite steps would be inevitable before the matter could be closed. This extraordinary episode in judicial inquiry of railway finance we have now to consider.

Early in January, the Interstate Commerce Commission began an investigation of the Union Pacific Railway's relation to the railway traffic situation generally. In the last number of *THE FORUM*, I called attention to the remarkable showing made in the Union Pacific's balance sheet for June 30, 1906, which reported \$21,258,883 cash on hand or in bank and \$34,710,000 in outstanding demand loans, a total not quite \$55,000,000 as against only \$7,345,565 in similar items reported twelve months before. There had been unmeasured wonder as to what the railway would do or had done, since the middle of last year, with this enormous sum of ready money. There were not wanting severe critics who called attention to the possibilities of facilitating Stock-Exchange speculation by the use of such a concentrated fund, and these people very naturally insisted that their criticism derived added force from the so-called inside speculation which broke out after the declaration of the Union Pacific's increased dividend in August.

The first achievement of the Interstate Commerce Commission in this investigation was the unearthing of the facts regarding this enormous cash fund. Their examination of the books showed that not only had the \$55,000,000 already referred to been absorbed in stock purchases since June 30, but that nearly twice as much more had been similarly invested. The facts were these: The sum of ready cash reported last June as in the treasury was increased by further sales of Great Northern and Northern Pacific stocks which had been held in Union Pacific's treasury since the Northern Securities liquidation. These various cash resources had been so rapidly employed on the Stock Exchange that in the six ensuing months Union Pacific had bought, directly or through its subsidiary companies, \$28,123,100 Illinois Central stock, \$10,000,000 Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé preferred, \$3,690,000 Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul common, \$14,285,745 New York Central, \$2,572,000 Chicago & Northwestern, \$5,000,000 St. Joseph & Grand Island, and \$39,540,000 Baltimore and Ohio common and preferred stock. In all, these new investments during the six months footed up \$103,168,745 par value, and

subsequent testimony indicated that the amount of money paid for them exceeded \$131,000,000.

Now there were several interesting facts which arose in connection with these purchases. Some of them could not by any stretch of inference be explained as purchases on the old community-of-interest theory, or as ownership stock for the sake of a voice in the affairs of a rival line. New York Central, for instance, does not connect with the Union Pacific lines, and the investment in this stock was not enough to insure anything like control. It further developed, from an examination of the minutes of the company, that the \$28,000,000 Illinois Central stock was bought by the railroad from its own directors, the board having followed the more or less empty formality of excusing the directors immediately concerned while the others voted on the question to purchase. Practical Wall Street had two things to say regarding these extraordinary acquisitions of stock. One was that with a few exceptions the stocks thus purchased were active in the speculative market. The other was that insiders, aware that the company was in the market, were entirely at liberty to profit in a speculative way from their knowledge that such enormous funds were to be invested. To an extent this must always be the case with an investing company, but the magnitude of the Union Pacific's operations placed it necessarily in a class by itself.

It might, on the other hand, have been argued that the record and practices of the men responsible for the administration of this huge fund was such that no one need entertain the least misgiving as to their proper and conservative use of it. But here the investigations of the Interstate Commerce Commission assumed after a few weeks of adjournment a most extraordinary turn. It had long been known in Wall-Street circles, though not very generally outside of Wall Street, that the group of capitalists which in 1899 bought up the old Chicago & Alton had somehow juggled with the stock of that company so as to leave the enterprise financially crippled after adding immensely to their personal profit from the undertaking. It was also known that the men engaged in this operation were in the main insiders of the Union Pacific management. Toward the close of February, the Interstate Commission placed on the stand Mr. E. H. Harriman, chairman of the board, and the leading spirit in the Union Pacific enterprise, and from him elicited the very extraordinary story of the Alton.

In brief, it was this: The capitalization of the company during the ownership of the four men in the group described who controlled perhaps ninety-seven per cent of the stock had been inflated from \$39,000,000 to \$125,000,000. It was admitted even by this naturally biased witness that from one-third to one-half of this was water. In June,

1899, these controlling interests offered to shareholders of the Alton — that is to themselves — \$32,000,000 of new three-per-cent bonds at sixty-five. In October or November of the same year a large part of these bonds were sold to the New York Life Insurance Company at ninety-six. Careful calculations made on the basis of Mr. Harriman's own testimony figured out that the profit of this operation to the four insiders was \$8,000,000, in addition to which they paid themselves a thirty-per-cent cash dividend of \$6,600,000, sold another block of bonds to themselves at sixty and afterward to other people at eighty — so that between these and other expedients for turning an honest penny in the company's finances they expected from the financing upward of \$23,000,000.

The point of this investigation naturally lay in the fact that, in at least one or two instances, the same men were engaged in Union Pacific finance. It was answered by defenders of the Alton operation that, inasmuch as these four men are the shareholders of the company, they were entitled to such benefits as might accrue from any railway financing. The obvious answer was that directors had no business to fleece their railway even if the results of the operation are handed over to shareholders. Mr. Harriman himself made an attempt to justify the bond operation of 1899 by asserting that when the bonds were bought the financial outlook of the country was doubtful and troubled, whereas a great change had come over the situation by the time the New York Life made its purchase at ninety-six. This explanation, if seriously made, must have been made in ignorance of the facts which were that in the first half of 1899 a highly excited boom was in progress on the Stock Exchange with the public clamoring to buy, whereas in November, when the sale was made to the New York Life, the Boer War panic had swept over Europe's markets, causing utter demoralization in both home and foreign finance.

A further consideration which acted seriously to the prejudice of Mr. Harriman and his associates was the refusal to answer on the witness stand the question whether stock involved in these operations, as in the sale of Alton shares to the Union Pacific, had or had not belonged to the witness who was himself a Union-Pacific director. The public quite inevitably assumed from the refusal to answer that the answer would have been in the affirmative, and this hardly mitigated public feeling in regard to the Union Pacific episode. It was shown by the testimony that the \$100,000,000 convertible bond issue authorized by Union-Pacific shareholders in 1901 was voted without the slightest attempt to inquire what use would be made of the fund. For this inaction of the stockholders, the only apology or explanation is the abnormal state of

mind which existed in financial circles at that time in 1901. Finally, it was brought to light in the course of the investigation that early in 1903, when pressed hard by a suit to test the legality of its ownership of half the Southern Pacific Railway's stock, Union Pacific resorted to the subterfuge of selling to Mr. William Rockefeller 300,000 shares of the stock in question. Mr. Rockefeller held this stock until the following autumn, when he returned it, receiving his money back and a handsome commission.

Now the point of interest in the matter is that during the time Mr. Rockefeller held the stock, Union Pacific's fiscal year came to a close. The balance sheet of June 30 was not published at the time; and when it did appear the company was represented as having held in its treasury on June 30 all of the Southern-Pacific stock originally in its possession. Mr. Harriman, asked as to the propriety of this entry, simply stated that the balance sheet was prepared in November and that by instructions the entry was made according to the actual circumstances of November — this although the page on which it was printed appeared to give the balance sheet of June 30. This bit of testimony scarcely requires comment. It was ill-received by the financial community, and led to no surprise when it was intimated that the Interstate Commission might press for legislation regulating the use of railway companies as banking and investing concerns. Whether such restriction can be effected is another question.

The financial future is at this moment more than usually difficult to forecast. On the one side stand the facts that the burden of an inflated Stock Exchange speculation has been shaken off, and that, simultaneously our power over Europe's supply of capital, through our sales of railway notes abroad, is clearly great enough to procure foreign gold in quantity for our bank reserves if we choose to use that power. On the other side are the facts that our bank position is still weak — on March 16 the excess over the required reserve was at New York much the lowest since 1903; that money rates had risen to twenty-five per cent on call and seven per cent on time, wholly abnormal figures for the season; that foreign financial markets, notably at London and Berlin, were in so precarious a position as to render doubtful the possible outcome of large gold withdrawals; and that London financiers plainly threatened a renewed advance in the Bank of England rate, in case of such withdrawals, to six per cent or higher. There is also the question of prosperity as shown by our internal trade, regarding which the position is very curious. Foreign critics are pretty unanimous in the judgment that reduced trade activity is essential to

escape disastrous strain on the money markets. Wall Street asserts that trade reaction is foreshadowed by the prolonged collapse on the Stock Exchange. Railway men have declared that at least contracting activity in steel and iron must follow the forced retrenchment of the railways. On top of this comes the assertion of numerous oracles, from Secretary Shaw to some business men themselves, that a slackening of the pace was a thing to hope for. Yet, at this writing, there is nowhere tangible evidence of such a slackening, — the reports from virtually all trade centres, up to the present writing, reporting large demand for merchandise, light supplies, difficulty of meeting orders on manufacturers, and a generally sound condition in the face of this unprecedentedly active movement.

ALEXANDER D. NOYES.

OPERA IN NEW YORK, AND MUSIC ABROAD.

THE rejection of "Salome" involves a question of far-reaching importance: the freedom of dramatic representation. The growth of dramatic and musico-dramatic performances during the past years has been phenomenal. Never before have people flocked to theatre and opera in such numbers. Never has the stage been a more fruitful topic of discussion. Why? Because people are daily becoming more intensely interested in the actualities of life. They thirst for actual experience. They wish to put life to the test for themselves. Is it not natural, therefore, that, during their hours of leisure, they should eagerly throng to witness the representation of life on the stage — life in its actuality, in all its phases, the intense life in the present, which is fraught for them with an ever-increasing importance, which all conditions are tending to stimulate, and which no reactionary tendencies, whether dictated by conviction or policy, can long arrest?

Does any one really believe that at such a time and in a country the boast of which has ever been the right of free discussion, the representation of a musical drama performed at the greatest centres of modern culture abroad can really be long withheld from an American public desirous of judging for itself? It is not the play of "Salome" itself, but the principle involved which is here at stake. The people wish to know through adequate representation — if it be possible to secure this — just what the merits or demerits of this drama really are. Is "Salome" a faithful historic picture presented with all the graphic power which music can lend to poetic diction, or is it morbid in its inception and treatment? Is the expressional character of the music suggestive of a straining after realistic effects at variance with the æsthetic principles of the art, and therefore unsound from the standpoint of art, or is it the splendid production of an individual genius in touch with the deeper currents of modern life, who is seeking new channels?

Our public is capable of judging for itself; it need not be held in tutelage. Rarely, if ever, is it influenced by the divergent opinions of critics: it decides for itself. In the long run its judgment is true and sound, and this, owing not to the opinion of critics, but to that instinctive appreciation of what is true in art, which is implanted as deeply in the people as a whole as is the desire for free discussion of political, moral,

and other questions affecting our daily life. Innumerable are the plays, dramatic and musical, placed upon the boards, the subject-matter of which, regarded from a certain moral standpoint, is unexceptionable. Yet they are coarse, commonplace, vulgar, and debasing from an artistic point of view. The converse is true also. When "Die Walküre," now perhaps the favorite German opera of our American public, was first produced abroad, the press was lurid with indignant comment, in which the stage-direction, "der Vorhang fällt schnell" (the curtain falls quickly) played a conspicuous part. Yet "Die Walküre" has survived, for more than thirty years its fame has increased the world over, and none but a very narrow-minded person, or one fearful of facing the great realities of existence, would take exception to-day to the heroic human suffering of those unfortunate victims of a fate tragic beyond compare, *Siegmond* and *Sieglinde*, as depicted by Richard Wagner.

There is no place in the world where art, both music and the drama, should find wider tolerance or more speedy recognition than in New York City, than which no city in the Union is more typically American (using the word in its broadest and best sense), combining as it does our fundamental virtue, keen emulation, with what is not always found elsewhere, a liberal and tolerant spirit. Why should we therefore in matters of art be governed here by a small minority?

We are not here concerned with any criticism whatever on "Salome." We must wait until we have heard this production of the greatest living composer *adequately* and sufficiently often presented. The fact is that a work such as this ought to be given here under the auspices of the composer himself, provided it were possible to give him proper material and sufficient time for rehearsing.

New Yorkers, therefore, have a right to judge for themselves; in the light of present conditions — Twentieth Century conditions — they *will* judge for themselves; and, in view of the history of public taste and judgment, they *can* judge for themselves. There have been periods, it is true, when some particular composer has been heralded as a veritable god, surrounded for years by a host of worshippers, finally to be relegated to an inferior niche in the Pantheon. Was this ever due to the efforts of critics? By no means. It was due, first of all, to slow and gradual, but most potent, changes in political, social, and economic life.

With the downfall of the French Empire, for example, many deities in the realm of the arts toppled to their fall. They had been associated merely with an evanescent phase of political life, with a political régime, the noise and glamour of which is still reflected in the music of that period. Far more potent than the factors before mentioned has been the in-

fluence of comparatively unrestricted musical and dramatic representation which, in the case of Wagner, for example, gradually succeeded in removing at Paris the prejudice of even so intensely national a people as the French. The public, whether that of artistic Paris or of New York, can, in the long run, be trusted to judge correctly in matters of art, the most important consideration in this respect being the assurance of *adequate interpretation*.

It is a well-known fact that no other art is so dependent upon interpretation as is music. Every one is willing to concede this, yet how rarely are the requirements of adequate interpretation fulfilled! Wagner once said of Liszt that his interpretation of the classic masterpieces was such as to place him almost upon a level with the composer whose work he reproduced. In the pianistic field we have to-day a host of performers, but there is not a single individual of heroic calibre among them, not one endowed with the elemental passion or mental grasp requisite to revive the dead score of a Beethoven sonata or of a "Fantasy" by Schumann. In the domain of orchestral music a slight advance has been made within the past few years, and New Yorkers have been fortunate in securing a man of flesh and blood like Safonoff to conduct their Philharmonic concerts. But the great majority of orchestral renderings still give, in humble phrase, only a dead letter.

Coming now to operatic performances, it is sad to be compelled to record the lamentable fact that there has appeared during the past few years a pronounced tendency toward sensationalism, which cannot be too strongly condemned. The public, of course, wants a novelty now and then. But that novelty should be suitably staged, and repeatedly and carefully rehearsed. At an opera-house such as the Metropolitan, where "Die Fledermaus" is given one day and the greatest masterpiece in the whole domain of music, "Parsifal," is advertised to be authentically performed the next, artistic resources must be available which to the initiated must appear to be fairly staggering.

Some of the greatest works in the repertory of German opera have not been heard here in years and years. Carl Maria von Weber, "the most typically German of all German composers," as Wagner styles him, might never have lived, for aught we hear of him in this, the third largest German city in the world, as it has been called. If the question were put to many of our young people here as to what German opera is, they would probably glibly answer "The Ring." Who are the great German operatic composers? Wagner. France, too, has had composers of merit besides the few whose compositions are everlastingly performed here, and some operas worthy of mention besides those which we have continually heard for years. At any great musical centre abroad

genuine music-lovers are familiar with Boïeldieu, Cherubini, Gluck, Spontini, and Auber. They do, indeed, realize that Meyerbeer and Gounod are "caviar to the general." They know that a certain class of the *bourgeoisie*, which the Germans would describe as being "von der Kultur beleckt," cannot appreciate so well the more refined and classic productions in the field of music. They make allowances for this and wait until an opera of a higher order is given; and they generally have not long to wait.

Of course, allowances must be made for the different conditions prevailing in New York City. Our population is not stationary. Were it so, the standards in music would probably rise, instead of being depressed or rendered stationary by the constant accession of elements which must regard "Grand Opera," with the accent on the "Grand," as a novelty and a luxury. From the standpoint of a money-making institution, therefore, these elements must be taken into account. They must (with apologies to Coleridge)

On honey-dew be fed,
And drink the milk of paradise

by being initiated into the lovely melodies of "Faust" and "The Huguenots." It has been somewhat better here this year, but the same general standard prevails.

On the other hand, we have in New York a class of people who regard a visit to the opera as a social function. The production of a "novelty" is to them a special inducement, a sort of "red letter" event, a guarantee that their friends "will be there." The advent of a new "star" has the same effect upon this class of opera-goers, and the first appearance of Mlle. So-and-So is sure to be a drawing-card.

The general standard of an operatic performance has comparatively little effect upon either of these two classes, which so strongly characterize present conditions generally. It is the element of moderate means, but of real musical culture, the element which patronizes the better class of concerts, which is inclined to be critical. These are the people by whom art itself is cherished. Many of them have become familiar with the best productions in the field of instrumental and vocal music by frequent visits to good concerts, and they have travelled abroad and know what the repertory of European opera-houses offers.

It is these people who know what a good "all-round" performance means. Even though they cannot always hear such works as they should like, they are satisfied to have at least a perfect ensemble placed before them, an ensemble in which conductor and stage-manager, soloists and chorus, combine harmoniously to secure an artistic and satisfying result.

Such an ensemble, which the writer so strongly urged upon the management of the Metropolitan several years ago, has come at last. It is the achievement of Mr. Oscar Hammerstein of the Manhattan Opera House.

There's a new foot on the floor, my friends,
And a new face at the door, my friends,
A new face at the door.

In the spirit of Tennyson's lines, Mr. Hammerstein has truly ushered in an operatic New Year, if not a new era in operatic annals. For New York has never before in its history had so fine an ensemble, such finished performances of Italian opera as have been given at the new opera-house in Thirty-fourth Street.

New Yorkers had long been prone to believe that there was a dearth of good singers abroad: Mr. Hammerstein has brought over a whole shipful of them. He has introduced several conductors whom it would be difficult to duplicate. He has presented an orchestra drilled to a nicety, and ever in absolute accord with singers and chorus. He has produced a chorus, not consisting of lay figures, but of wide-awake men and women, who not only sing admirably together, but whose grouping upon the stage is natural, lifelike, and vivid to the last degree. He has been at pains to present scenery and costumes which are never incongruous, but generally appropriate and pleasing; and, instead of presenting a few "stars," surrounded by a most disappointing aggregation of satellites, he has given us an agreeable variety of excellent singers of the principal rôles, as well as uniformly competent interpreters of minor parts.

A musical critic is not apt to become enthusiastic to-day as regards performances in general; but there are times when he can well afford to dispense with his "judicial poise" and give his unstinted approval where it is merited. In an interview with Mr. Hammerstein, three days before the opening night of the opera, the director told the writer that every dollar invested in the enterprise came out of his own pocket. "But it is not merely a matter of dollars and cents with me," he added; "my heart is in this enterprise." In this connection, the writer merely wishes to state it as his sincere conviction that no man actuated *solely* by the desire for pecuniary gain could achieve the artistic results attained by Mr. Hammerstein. The people of New York owe him a debt of gratitude; for he has shown what it is possible to achieve with some sincerity of purpose and real artistic discernment. Our Manhattan opera, if continued along the lines followed this season, should receive the unstinted support of every true music-lover in New York City.

The singers composing Mr. Hammerstein's company are already

well known to the public, and especially is this true of Madame Melba; so that a reference to their specific abilities here would almost seem superfluous. What a fine dramatic singer Mr. Hammerstein has in Mme. De Cisneros, whose every gesture and inflection denote true artistic insight! Whether as *Azucena* in "Il Trovatore," *Ulrica* in "Un Ballo in Maschera," or *Amneris* in "Aïda," her impersonation, both vocally and dramatically, has never for a moment been devoid of interest. The same is true of Mme. Bressler-Gianoli's *Carmen*, than which a better impersonation has rarely if ever been heard in New York. The wide range of this contralto voice, the infusion of the dramatic element into every tone, and the fine histrionic ability of the artist, cannot be too highly praised. Indeed, it is that primary essential, the dramatic element, which, above all, makes the performances at the Manhattan worth listening to. The clear, and at times almost birdlike, tones of Mlle. Pinkert, and the rich, virgin quality of Mme. Donalda's voice and her charming rendering of such rôles as *Zerline* and *Marguerite* — these attributes have combined to introduce to the New York public two further valuable acquisitions to our operatic staff.

Unfortunately, it is not possible here to discuss in detail the various other interpreters of feminine rôles at the Manhattan. Turning to the male contingent, we have had the interesting, tactful, and sweet-voiced, if somewhat diminutive, Sig. Bonci, who has become a popular favorite despite certain mannerisms which he would do well to omit. One of these is the tendency to a long-sustained *diminuendo*, such as he likes to introduce before the final phrase of "La donna e mobile." There is really no dramatic justification for this sort of thing, which may tickle the ears of the "gallery gods" or of those youthful visitors to the opera who enjoy the melting luxury of an Italian tenor's *solis* as they would a box of choice bonbons.

The Manhattan has not only offered one excellent tenor, but several of them, among which MM. Bassi, Dalmores, and Alchevsky are deserving of particular mention. If there has been no dearth of good tenors here, there assuredly has been none as regards barytones. M. Renaud, who unfortunately was with us only a short time, has practically recreated the rôle of *Rigoletto*, particularly as regards the dramatic interpretation of this difficult part. Who that has visited these performances has not been thrilled by the resonant, inspiring tones of Sig. Ancona, the sympathetic voice of Seveilhac, and the rich and fluent vocalization of Sammarco? A good basso is rare, but the Manhattan boasts of several excellent specimens of this lowest register of the male voice, in which connection it is necessary to mention only MM. Arimondi, Gilibert, and Mugnoz. Indeed, both as an actor and as a singer, Sig. Arimondi has con-

tributed in no slight degree to the success of Mr. Hammerstein's company. As *Sparafucile* in "Rigoletto," *Ramfis* in "Aïda," *Mephistopheles* in "Faust," *Samuel* in "Un Ballo," and *Don Basilio* in "Il Barbiere" — rôles certainly requiring considerable dramatic versatility — he has made an impression on our New York public which will not soon be effaced.

It is, however, more particularly in the apportionment of the minor rôles that the management of the Manhattan has displayed its fidelity to the artistic purpose. This, for example, was well exemplified in "Un Ballo in Maschera," which, after a lapse of fourteen years or so, was performed at the Metropolitan during the season of 1902-1903. Shall we ever forget the villains Tom and Samuel, who looked for all the world like longshoremen out for a frolic; or the motley aggregations of costumes some suggesting Italian *marinari*, others French peasants, while the remainder might have been mistaken for frowzy Cossacks?

At the Manhattan performance last winter, every feature of the incongruous plot which might possibly have aroused comment or ridicule was presented with the utmost care. Everywhere a sense of æsthetic fitness prevailed. Arimondi and Mugnoz made us forget their cognomens Samuel and Tom; indeed, they were probably the most acceptable and dignified villains that ever appeared in the lamentable setting which Verdi, for political reasons, ultimately decided to give to the "Masked Ball," in many respects a noble work. The part of Oscar, the page, instead of being relegated to a person of minor ability, was assigned to Mlle. Zeppilli, who immediately upon her entrance captivated all hearts by her charming presence, her irresistibly graceful acting, and her fresh and not unpleasing voice. Finally, the assassination scene in the last act, which act, by the way, was beautifully staged, shows how an episode such as this can be presented with all dramatic intensity, without offending our sense of fitness. If this applies to a work like the "Masked Ball," it applies in an infinitely higher degree to a work like "Salome," in the final scene of which a historic episode picturing the utmost extremes between the mad, riotous intoxicating revelry of life and the awful silent picture of suffering and death, is presented in dramatic form.

The achievements of the Manhattan, not only with more modern French and Italian productions, but with such old-time operas as "I Puritani" and "La Somnambula," prove the truth of the statement frequently made in *THE FORUM*, that it is infinitely better to hear an honest operatic work of modest pretensions adequately performed than to listen to an unsatisfactory rendering of a music-drama by Wagner. Nothing is more elevating and inspiring than a good musical performance, nothing more misleading as to the nature and purpose of the composer and detrimental as to a proper appreciation of the value of his product

than a mediocre performance. It is a fallacy to believe that there is such a thing as the half-way good in music.

"The bad is not the worst, for seldom can it deceive;
The middling is far worse, so many it good believe."

—*Richard Wagner.*

Mediocre performances are such in which a few celebrated "stars" have things their own way, or in which a conductor, thoroughly familiar with musical scores, lacks the genius and insight to grasp the proper tempo or, grasping it, is so badly handicapped by the supremacy of our widely advertised "stars," that he is compelled to conform to their wishes and to sacrifice that fundamental requirement, truthful interpretation, the recognition of the totality, or, as we call it, the ensemble.

The star-system is the bane of operatic performances. Our drama was once dominated by it; but that time is fortunately passing away: the public is becoming more and more interested in the play itself. The days are happily over when vast audiences would sit in breathless expectation throughout a play in order that they might behold George Rignold enter "once more unto the breach." Yet, to-day, our public will sit patiently through the most tedious operatic performance in order that it may cull an occasional lyrical tidbit. If the celebrated tenor does not sing, it will stay away. In the performance of Italian operas of a certain order, this infatuation with the voice, pure and simple, might be in a measure condoned, though the writer is to-day of the conviction that the dramatic intentions of most of our great Italian composers have come to be somewhat underestimated through false exposition, literary and musical, and frequently by an unfair comparison between their operas and the music-dramas of Richard Wagner, in which a separation of music and text immediately results in absolute chaos.

But the individual performances on the part of several distinguished artists of the Italian and French schools here have demonstrated that they have not altogether lost touch with the traditions of the past; and during the season just terminated Mr. Hammerstein has conclusively shown that with good management and discipline and able musical leaders a very satisfactory ensemble may be obtained as regards Italian and French operas. If Mr. Hammerstein could now prove to the world that he could achieve an equally good result in the domain of Wagnerian opera, he would accomplish the greatest wonder of the age, at least as regards musical interpretation.

This, however, the writer believes under present conditions to be almost an impossibility. It is sad, but true, that there is an almost

impassable gulf between the man of transcendental genius in Germany and "the great majority." In the fatherland we find, on the one hand, men of towering genius, on the other, men characterized, it is true, by the attributes of the nation, sincerity of purpose and thoroughness, but, of necessity, often incapable of following the daring flights into the realm of thought and psychological experience of a Schopenhauer and a Nietzsche, of a Beethoven and a Wagner.

We know with what almost insuperable obstacles Wagner had to contend before he could place the "Trilogy" before the public, and we know also what numerous rehearsals and drill were required to make those performances satisfactory at Bayreuth in 1876. Those who are familiar with Wagner's views can readily understand his solicitude for the greatest musical drama ever penned — "Parsifal." Since those early days, a generation ago, we have been repeatedly told by men profoundly versed in the Wagnerian lore that Herr Kapellmeister X — or Frau Sängerin Z — were the only accredited representatives of the great master, that they had performed under his auspices at Bayreuth, and that "nur wenn mit ihrem Stempel versehen" (only when stamped with their signature, so to speak) could the performances of the Wagnerian dramas be considered valid and genuine.

Such statements as these, re-echoed on the part of critics, and faithfully repeated by the public, have served to make of the Wagnerian cult to-day a sort of "Only Infallible Church," into which those alone who are duly initiated may enter.

It is the opinion of the writer that Wagner never wanted this sort of thing. No man knew better than he how subtle and elusive, how misleading and treacherous, the traditions regarding the performance of such transcendental musical creations would be and how difficult of fulfilment and exacting the conditions which would make possible truly adequate performances of the "Ring" and "Parsifal."

Things have gradually come to such a pass that to differ from the high-priests of the Wagnerian cult must almost be regarded as downright heresy. Yet the fact remains that the average Wagnerian performance at present, in its totality, reflects the conception of the German Philistine rather than that of the immortal author of the "Ring"; and this conception is unfortunately reflected in the mind of the public.

If it were possible for a man of real discernment, and open to conviction, a man equipped with sufficient funds, and supported and encouraged by the good-will and aid of all true music-lovers, to secure for New York City such a setting of the legitimate Wagnerian dramas as they really merit, that man would be entitled to the enduring regard of every sincere devotee of music in America.

"Zaza," a play with which we are all familiar, has now, as we know, been cast in operatic form by Leoncavallo. The musical setting is skilful, although, so far, the play has not impressed audiences as powerfully as has "Il Pagliacci," an opera which has maintained its popularity everywhere. Undoubtedly, however, this work, like the latest opera of Puccini, "Madama Butterfly," will before long be heard in its entirety in the United States. Mascagni, whose ill-starred journey through the United States is familiar to us, has again come upon the scene with an opera entitled "Amica." Indeed, the Italian element, during the past year, has been very conspicuously represented in the operatic field by Puccini, Leoncavallo, and Mascagni, as well as by Giordano (whose "Siberia" has already been reviewed in these pages), Pizzi, and Wolf-Ferrari. France has found a prominent representative in Saint-Saëns, whose opera "L'Ancêtre" has been produced on several European stages; while England has given proof of real Anglo-Saxon pluck by sending a lady into the operatic amphitheatre, Miss E. M. Smyth, whose previous opera, "Der Wald," was given at the Metropolitan Opera House during the season of 1902-1903.

Upon the whole, the offerings in the operatic field this year, if we except "Salome," are not distinguished by striking originality. In the field of instrumental music, however, we have to-day the prolific young composer, Max Reger, who seems to share the honors with Richard Strauss. Reviews and essays galore are being published on Reger, and his works are being subjected to a fairly microscopic analysis, not the minutest detail being omitted in these characteristic musical dissections.

Frequently, of course, these dissections, these attempts at minute analysis, are somewhat absurd. Yet, after all, they give evidence of that thoroughness so characteristic of the German. Every shred of evidence which can be produced in support of this or that theory concerning a contemporary in the field of science or art is carefully submitted in the criticisms published so plentifully in the newspaper and magazine press of the fatherland. Nor do these discussions end when the person concerning whom this literary warfare is waged has finally folded his hands and "gone to his rest." Any document which can throw light upon the life of the deceased or serve to elucidate his theories is most carefully treasured.

In the case of Richard Wagner there is surely good justification for this enthusiasm; and the recent publication of several newly discovered letters addressed to the great master have therefore aroused general interest. Considerably more than three thousand letters of Wagner have now been published — a literature in itself. His correspondence was enormous; and, in this respect, he furnished a singular contrast to

Chopin, for example, of whom it is said that he would walk miles to deliver a message in person rather than write a letter.

Yet, comparatively few of the letters addressed to Wagner himself have so far beheld the light of day. There are various reasons for this. In the first place, Wagner was for many years practically without a home. His pecuniary condition, as well as the uncertainty of his abode, combined to prevent a careful conservation of his correspondence. Many of the letters, moreover, were somewhat unimportant, referring frequently to matters of merely transitory interest. Such, however, as have been saved, often throw light on the artistic and cultural conditions of a day now past and are therefore valuable as regards their bearing upon the history of art.

The correspondence of such men as Louis Spohr, Hector Berlioz, and others with the enthusiastic and aggressive Wagner, and the attitude of these musicians toward the greatest musical iconoclast of modern times, are also of interest as demonstrating the friendly spirit with which true genius often greets the newcomer in the ranks. We all know that Wagner had to encounter much opposition. Most tantalizing of all to a man of his sensitiveness must have been the petty jealousies as well as the personal spitefulness displayed toward him by his opponents and the unfair methods of literary warfare employed by them.

Louis Spohr was one of the few men who recognized the genius of Wagner at the very outset and who remained loyal to him from first to last. At a time when Wagner was still scarcely known, Spohr, in a letter recently for the first time made public, shows that he thoroughly understood the newcomer and unhesitatingly expressed himself to that effect in a personal letter to Wagner. Referring to an early performance of "The Flying Dutchman," he said:

As for myself, I have had a predilection for it from the very beginning; for the reading of the score already convinced me that the opera was written with enthusiasm, that it was not *designed* for effect nor to win the approbation of the multitude. Continue in this and your work will redound to the honor of German art!

Happy is the man who knows his own mind and who does not fear to express his opinion. Among critics it is so often a case of waiting until the rest come up. There are many moulders of public opinion living to-day, for example, who would feel very uncomfortable were their early immature opinions on Richard Strauss again summoned before them as a sort of "Banquo's ghost" thirty years hence. But, of course, there is such a thing as changing one's mind, and a most convenient thing it is, especially to the critic.

What such an opinion as that of Louis Spohr must have been worth to Wagner at that time can scarcely be realized by the uninitiated.

No man is more dependent upon friendship and recognition than the artist. In this connection, the question often suggests itself: If the lives of Mozart and Schubert were so early terminated, largely through suffering, privation, and want, how many men endowed with genius of a slower growth have been crushed out of existence entirely before they could demonstrate their ability to the world, and how many, for the sake of self-preservation, have been forced aside from the pursuit of their high goal and doomed forever to pass their life "among the shallows?"

Wagner was a man of many-sided and varied interests, notwithstanding the intensity of his nature and his concentration of purpose. Thus it came that he was brought into touch, not only with musicians, but with scientists, artists, and literati in many parts of the world. Some of the letters of Wagner's correspondents, therefore, which have been recently added to the list, throw very interesting sidelights upon past political and social conditions in Germany — conditions which, to the generation since grown up, must appear almost incredible. In this connection, the letters of Constantin Franz to Richard Wagner, dating from 1866 and published in the "*Bayreuther Blätter*" during the past year, are especially interesting.

The tendency in Europe to celebrate the great composers of the past and everywhere to seek out correspondence which may illuminate their career and their opinions; the publication of revised editions of their works; the endeavors to unearth lost musical manuscripts; the revivals of operas which have undeservedly fallen into neglect; and the organization of festivals upon a large scale in honor of Mozart and other musical celebrities of the past — all these phenomena emphasize the fact that, after all, most of our present productions in the musical field are merely ephemeral and are regarded so by the truly cultured music-lover. Herein we should find an additional reason why Strauss and the very small number of others who really display any originality whatever to-day in the field of composition should be encouraged in every way possible.

Men like Saint-Saëns in France, and Grieg in Norway, are growing old and are no longer as fertile in production as formerly. How many are there in France or Scandinavia to-day to fill their places? As regards Italy, that country probably stands first to-day, at least numerically, so far as talented operatic composers of a certain order are concerned. Puccini, notably, is at present "all the rage." Undoubtedly Puccini's skilful instrumentation and his extremely clever choice of subjects for musical setting are factors which have contributed largely to his success.

"*Madama Butterfly*" has made a hit in Europe as well as in America, and it seems that our recent visitor from Italy is now casting about for some typical American subject with which to glorify Uncle Sam. The

composer was recently quoted in our press here as saying that, if he could find a good libretto treating of the busy period of 1849, he would try to do something with it in a musical way, selecting, however, not the American Indian, but the once picturesque pioneer of the "Wild West" for musical representation. In this interview, Puccini is quoted as saying that he has always been fascinated by the stories of Bret Harte and has, therefore, long been familiar in a measure with scenes of our Western life; so that, in order to obtain local color, it would scarcely be necessary for him to visit our plains. Leoncavallo has written a "Roland of Berlin" and Puccini may now perhaps be able to find some "Roland of Kansas City, Missouri."

Mention has been made of the necessity of encouraging real ability, in order that, amid such empty show and noise, the talented individual shall not perish. In this connection, frequent reference has recently been made to the noble and gifted composer, Peter Cornelius, a nephew of the illustrious painter, Peter von Cornelius. His life was a fruitless struggle for recognition, and the means of a livelihood were not obtained until after middle age. Although Cornelius supported himself partly by teaching and partly by translating poems and libretti by Rubinstein, Berlioz, and others, even the earnings obtained in this way were not always at hand, and the composer was frequently in a state of absolute dependence upon his family and friends.

Schubert received about a dollar and a quarter from one publisher for half a dozen of his best songs, and Cornelius, at a much later day, obtained an almost equally absurd sum, comparatively speaking, for his only opera, "The Barber of Bagdad," a splendid work and Cornelius's *chef d'œuvre*. The failure of this fine setting of an old theme was brought about by the opposition of a faction inimical to the composer, and the circumstance is said to have enraged Liszt to such an extent that he left Weimar. It is only recently, through the publication by his son of the letters and diary of Cornelius, that the really tragic history of this highly gifted composer, who even to-day is hardly known to the public at large, has come to light. Although he left in his songs many rich gems, the greater part of this collection of lyrics was not published until after his death.

It has become the fashion of late years to depreciate Franz Liszt. Yet, if the magnanimous and noble-spirited Liszt had done nothing more than to rescue Cornelius from absolute oblivion and to extend the hand of friendship to this worthy and gifted musical genius during his lifetime, that circumstance alone would have entitled him to lasting regard. Discouraged and snubbed by the "foremost musical authorities" of Berlin, poor Cornelius finally called upon Liszt, who had befriended so

many of his colleagues — a visit which Cornelius whimsically described as follows:

As I was walking up the steps to Liszt's rooms in the Altenburg, the superstitious idea came over me that an even number would be lucky, and an uneven number, unlucky. And, behold! there were twenty-one steps.

Yet Liszt became the friend and adviser of Cornelius, who declares that Liszt's was the noblest heart that ever beat in an artist's breast.

Here we find one of the most delightful song-writers of the century almost entirely neglected during his lifetime, one whose worth is only now beginning to be sufficiently appreciated. The general opinion is that we are rich in songs, in short lyrics. In a numerical sense we are. Yet only at rare intervals have musicians arisen capable of giving a truly artistic setting to a genuine poem. The trouble has been that we have become so steeped in a certain species of sentimental lyricism, that we are frequently incapable of discriminating between this and the genuine artistic product.

In an article by the writer on Robert Schumann,¹ reference has already been made to this lamentable confusion which probably is often accountable for the failure of our public to distinguish a real lyrical gem, when it first appears, from the spurious article.

Another musician who would probably have achieved great things had not death early terminated his brief and unfortunate career was Richard Nordraak, the composer of Norway's national anthem. Björnsterne Björnson, who for many years has been so closely associated with Grieg by the double tie of friendship and art, recently said at the grave of Nordraak:

His death completely altered my plan of life. My mind was filled with the old Icelandic battle-songs and pictures from the ancient northern mythology. It was my intention to create, in conjunction with the deceased, great dramas out of this material, for which he was to supply the music.

In this connection, it may not be amiss to speak of another composer of Norway, Sjögren, whose works are commanding an increasing interest by reason of the fantasy and poetic fervor which they display, and the technical skill revealed in the communication of his musical ideas. Like many of the Scandinavian poets, it is the ballad-form which particularly fascinates the musician here discussed, especially the ballad pervaded by a sombre northern coloring. Unfortunately we have not had many composers since Löwe who have preferentially adopted this form and who have treated it skilfully. But Sjögren also excels in other departments of music, and several of his pianoforte pieces are very charming.

¹ THE FORUM, October, 1896.

Another man among these Scandinavians is Haakon Boerresen who, although only in his thirtieth year, has already created considerable stir by his fine songs. Of course, it is Sinding, who, excepting Grieg, occupies the most conspicuous position among Norwegian composers, although it is very doubtful whether he will ever reveal the originality which is associated with the composer of "Peer Gynt." Sinding has recently contributed many beautiful compositions to our repertory of vocal and instrumental music, most of which are pervaded by a joyous strain and are full of that refreshing strength and vitality which Sinding infuses into so much of his music.

There is something manly and robust about these Northern composers, however unequal their compositions may be, and however manifest the occasional influence of Wagnerian motifs, even here. But where is the Wagnerian influence not discernible to-day? Upon the whole, the men of worth, especially the younger men, are coming to the front; even Finland, with its strong patriotism and its distinctive character, contributing, in Sibelius and Järnefelt, two composers of no mean order. Gifted with a fine knowledge of instrumentation, and strongly imbued with the spirit of the Finnish people, the two last-mentioned composers have certainly brought Finland nearer to our hearts, and have revealed a rich vein of melody in Finnish folksong, which we find skilfully interwoven with their more elaborate works.

The public is naturally interested in compositions which give evidence of a distinctive national coloring. This is especially true of the music associated with the smaller countries of Europe, those countries, especially, which have had a hard struggle to maintain their political independence, their national features and customs. It is given to few composers, however, to reflect the character of their people in tones.

Perhaps the most distinguished example of this power to-day is Grieg. During the Hungarian revolution of 1848, when patriotic Magyars were flocking to the national standard, Heine penned a satirical verse on Liszt, which ends with the line "Sein Schwert liegt in der Kommode" (his sword lies in the bureau-drawer). Yet there are few genuine Magyars to-day who are not inspired to enthusiasm by Liszt's "Battle of the Huns" or by the nineteen rhapsodies in which he has perpetuated so much that is dear to the Hungarian people. In the works of Chopin, mediæval Poland in all its splendor is again brought before us; and in the very hour, one might say, in which Poland lost the last vestige of her political freedom, fate ordained that one of her sons should arise to perpetuate her national glory in tones. In view of these facts, it seems peculiarly appropriate at this time that the gifted Finnish people should find musical utterance through several of their gifted young composers.

Generally speaking, however, we find in Europe to-day a sort of musical cosmopolitanism. For instance, here is a man with a pronounced Czech name who composes an overture to Gerhart Hauptmann's play, "Die Weber," surely a fruitful subject enough. We look for something like distinctive treatment of the theme, something which shall smack of originality, and we find constant reminiscences of the German classics, intermingled with all sorts of peculiarities of expression seemingly introduced in an arbitrary manner for effect.

Occasionally American themes are chosen. One German composer has recently written an orchestral suite entitled "Hiawatha," purporting to be a new musical setting of Longfellow's poem. Poor Hiawatha has begun his wanderings through the land of the musical scribes, and the war-paint is being laid on according to the various conceptions of the American Indian as they exist at Berlin, Paris, and elsewhere. But the famous case of the camel which was evolved from the profound inner consciousness of the artist need not be repeated in this instance; for are not the inhabitants of the fatherland familiar with Buffalo Bill and his braves? The German composer has therefore something more tangible to work upon than the figure described by Cooper as "stalking like a gigantic shadow in the dim twilight of tradition."

This constant search for the exotic, the strange, is one of the symptoms of a time in which, as before stated, genuine creative ability, "wahrer Schaffensdrang," as the Germans aptly put it, is rare, or confined to a few men only. Another composer selects for his subject "Turandot," a Chinese tale treated in charming form by Gozzi and also dramatized by Schiller. The brief overture to "Turandot," by Weber, in which the composer quaintly conforms to the Chinese scale, is one of the gems of our classic repertory, though the composition is, unfortunately, not often played. In the present work, an orchestral suite by Ferruccio Busoni, something more at least than mere oddity or grotesqueness of expression has been sought. The suite consists of a series of marches, dances, and overtures. A pronounced Oriental coloring has been skilfully adopted throughout, while the instrumental effects are in consonance with those which one might expect to hear at a Chinese theatre, the instruments of percussion, for example, being strongly emphasized and characteristically treated. Busoni, who has been in America several times, is now scarcely forty years of age, and his popularity is constantly increasing.

Whatever may be said of certain tendencies among Italian composers of to-day, the fact remains that Italy, despite distressing economic and other conditions which weigh heavily upon her people, is giving ample proof that the vital artistic impulse which so strongly

distinguishes the Italian is as powerful to-day as it ever was. At one time it was thought that Verdi would be in a sense "the last of the Romans." It is true that his place has not yet been filled by any of his successors. But the fervor, the ambition, and the energy which characterize the Italian are still in evidence.

In connection with Busoni, who, though of Italian birth, has so long resided in Germany that he may almost be regarded as a native of that country, it may be said that a very pleasant relationship exists to-day between the composers of Germany and those of Italy, a relationship which will in time be sure to prove of great advantage to both countries. Germany does not forget her obligation to Italy in matters of art. However independent the paths which her great composers have trod, she nevertheless remembers that Mozart, the most wonderful of all, owed much of his culture and inspiration to Italian influence. Wagner, also, who was German to the core, cultivated pleasant relations with the great representatives of Italian music in his day, especially with Rossini and Spontini. The warm discussions regarding the relative merit of German and Italian music, which once agitated the ranks of the critics, can hardly be said to have emanated directly from Wagner himself, who, like all other true musicians, always had the deepest veneration for the genuine products of Italian art.

While the musical cosmopolitanism referred to has therefore its unpleasant features, the ever closer social intercourse between musicians of different nationalities is certain to be productive in time of good results. In Germany, Austria, and other European countries, the great festivals held so frequently at important centres contribute in no slight degree to this *rapprochement*. Last year such festivals were held at Cologne, Bonn, Görlitz, Essen, Baden-Baden, Kiel, Aix-la-Chapelle, Prague, Stockholm, Neuenburg (Switzerland), and many other places.

These gatherings do not merely attract the native musicians, but are often attended by resident foreigners and by visitors from abroad who come especially for this purpose. The Mozart Festival held last year at Salzburg was attended by representatives from nearly every country of Europe, while the United States was represented by a distinguished musician of Washington. These festivals cannot be too highly commended, especially when they are of an international character. Unfortunately such gatherings are too infrequent in our own country.

Yet, if musical festivals of such magnitude are rare here, we have had of late years some compensation in the visits of prominent musicians from abroad. During the past season we have been able to welcome the venerable Saint-Saëns, and last year France found a distinguished representative in Vincent d'Indy, who has recently given us

some valuable advice in an article published in "L'Indépendant," a reference to which may be interesting in view of M. D'Indy's recent visit.

M. D'Indy says that American composers are too hasty in their methods of composition; that, while there are touches revealing a sense of beauty and harmony, there is too often a lack of thorough study. Among other things, he cites an interview with one American composer whose answer would have appeared to indicate—what M. D'Indy mentions as a characteristic of many of our composers—an absence of lyrical sequence as to ideas and a frequent endeavor to present merely a succession of harmonies without inner relation. The composer in question, in reply to M. D'Indy's query as to his artistic aim in preparing a certain composition, is said to have answered that it was designed upon "a chromatic plan," whatever that may mean. M. D'Indy adds that an architect might similarly describe a building-plan as being based upon a foundation of blue and red.

M. D'Indy deprecates the custom now in vogue here of sending abroad so many students of music, where they frequently fall into the hands of unscrupulous teachers who wish merely to fill their pockets with good American coin. Instead of aiming at virtuosity, instead of endeavoring to win the fame of having been the pupil of the distinguished professor So and So of Vienna or Paris, these young people would often do better, in the opinion of M. D'Indy, to remain at home. There, at least, they might make a success as excellent orchestral players or chorus singers, in concert, church, or theatre, instead of essaying flights for which they are often unfitted.

He says that European teachers are often inclined to abuse the confidence reposed in them by these young people, and that they are prone to flatter them and to inspire hopes which eventually are doomed to disappointment. The cause of music would be greatly benefited if some of our less gifted young people, instead of aspiring to reach the summit of Parnassus, would confine their efforts to exercising a wholesome influence upon our general musical development by making themselves useful in a more humble capacity than that of virtuosi. There is no reason, adds this distinguished composer, why America should not have orchestras and singers composed exclusively of native talent, of good plain artists thoroughly educated in the schools of the United States.

M. D'Indy's point is well taken. It cannot be denied that a musical education abroad has many advantages. The student there lives in a more congenial atmosphere, so to speak, and not only his musical but his general culture is greatly benefited. The various branches of music

also are probably taught more thoroughly in the European schools, although some of the methods employed are susceptible of considerable improvement, being often needlessly dry and pedantic. On the whole, however, it is not the instruction itself, so much as the facilities afforded for an interchange of ideas on questions of art and science, and the consequent broadening of one's views, which constitutes the greatest benefit of a musical or general education abroad. A great drawback, on the other hand, is undoubtedly that referred to by M. D'Indy. In art, as in other matters, the American does not like to occupy a subordinate position; he generally aims high. The European is aware of this; and thus it comes that our young people who visit teachers abroad are sometimes encouraged with prospects which, in many instances, are not destined to be realized. The remedy which M. D'Indy suggests is well worthy of consideration.

JOSEPH SOHN.

THE EDUCATIONAL OUTLOOK.

IN the closing days of February another great educational convention was held in Chicago. About 1,200 people were in attendance: Superintendents and principals of schools, and others particularly interested in supervisory and administrative problems. The Department of Superintendence never before had so large an enrolment. Almost everybody attended the meetings and stayed through the last session, apparently well pleased with everything. President W. W. Stetson, of Maine, "the best number on the programme," as some one fitly called him, had selected his themes and speakers with an eye to the actual interests among superintendents. Pessimism was given a splendid chance in the wording of the topics. In spite of this the general tenor was optimistic, probably because of the lack of opportunity allowed to reform theorists in the presentation of the programme.

The course of study, in its various administrative aspects, practically monopolized the discussions. By the unavoidable absence from town of Mayor Dunne the convention was saved one speech of welcome. Superintendent Cooley's cordial words were well worth while because his appearance on the platform was the signal for an ovation, bearing eloquent testimony to the high esteem in which he is held by the educators of the country. He is fighting a good fight in Chicago, and the results are of vital concern to the common schools throughout the country, because of the secret foes of these schools who are directing the attacks against him.

The address by Principal Bryan of the St. Louis Central High School discussed the oft-repeated assertion that a high-school education is of no benefit to many pupils, that, in fact, many of them would be better off without it. Dr. Bryan's investigations have convinced him that even in cases considered hopeless by the teachers a distinct gain of an intellectual, social, or economic character can usually be credited to the time spent in the high school. The speaker made one incidental remark which was promptly attacked. He declared that the brighter pupils were less in need of the teacher's attention than those whose minds reacted more slowly; "those that are whole need not a physician, but they that are sick." The consensus of opinion opposed to this peculiar application of a well-known truism was that what was most

needed in our democracy is the right sort of leadership; and that it is, therefore, the duty of the school to look carefully after those who have in them the qualities that may make for leadership. It was pointed out that the dullard has occupied too largely the attention of teachers, and it is time that the needs of the mentally alert should receive more attention. Because of his unfortunate digression, the real force of Dr. Bryan's main argument failed to be as fully recognized as it should have been. Yet, the discussion was none the less fruitful in that it strengthened in many wavering minds the faith in the growing extension of secondary education.

I am reminded here of an article by Bishop Fallows in the February number of "The World of To-day," in which he publishes the results of a careful investigation of the results of the State maintenance of reformatories for the training of so-called "bad boys." He shows that it does pay, economically as well as in other ways, to apply educational rather than repressive measures. Here are a few significant extracts from the article:

I have taken at random eighty names from the list of the boys paroled to Chicago from the Illinois State Reformatory during the last five years, and found their earnings were nearly \$40,000 a year. The highest salary was \$100 per month and the lowest \$20 and board. Many were earning \$80, \$70, \$65, and \$52 monthly. The average wages of the more than 600 boys who have faithfully kept their parole during that time can be safely estimated at the average above given, \$500 a year. And as that number are now still steadily employed, so far as is known, their annual productive value is \$300,000.

Making a very conservative estimate, the sixty-five per cent only of the more than 2,000 boys who have been sent back to Chicago, have become good citizens, and taking the average earnings, just given, these 1,300 young men are annually receiving \$650,000 for their services.

I took thirty names of Chicago boys on parole at the present time and found that they were receiving on an average \$400 per year. Later on they will average as above, \$500.

Taking the same average of sixty-five per cent of the 6,000 boys already paroled from the institution, and of the earnings just enumerated, we have \$2,000,000 as the amount annually paid them. Applying the same low average of reclamations and earnings to the more than 13,000 inmates discharged from the Elmira Reformatory, we find the annual sum paid them to be more than \$6,000,000 per year. They are earning an amount equal to the entire annual expenditure of all the reformatories and industrial schools in the United States.

The Chicago convention brought out nothing particularly new, and at no time did the discussions rise above the best average of former years. This fact is perhaps accounted for by the prevailing cautiousness in utterance. Practically all the addresses were read. Every speaker seemed to be conscious of the presence of a most critical audi-

ence of experts quick to see through a flimsy drapery of smart sophisms. The only paper which stood out as almost radical was that by Miss Ada Van Stone Harris, of Rochester. She discussed the need of participation of organized society in the education of children during the period preceding school, and practically argued for the extension of hygienic control (physical and moral) over the homes in which the children are reared.

The mossback was less in evidence than usual, though the general discussions brought forward, if only for a moment, two or three of his kin. One of these amused the superintendents by the seriousness of her attack upon almost everything that represents the glory of the modern school, closing something like this: "Not satisfied with having cheapened education by the introduction of free text-books, there are people who would even have a dentist look after the teeth of the children at school. And some go so far as to suggest that the school must devise ways for feeding hungry pupils!" A friend sitting near remarked, after the peculiar harangue, that it seemed to her a wise provision of nature that people should die at the age of threescore years and ten, because old people find it too difficult to adapt themselves to the changing thought of the world, and that, aside from blocking progress, they keep themselves unhappy and at constant war with conditions. A teacher who has stopped growing is, of course, too old for school work, whether he be ninety or nineteen.

The National Educational Association, of which the Department of Superintendence is only one of some twenty-odd sections, is to meet at Los Angeles, in July. This being the semi-centennial year, the committee desired to have the convention at Philadelphia, where the first meeting of the organization was held. The railroads, however, were not willing to grant the customary extension of tickets. Under the circumstances the committee felt constrained to abandon its original plans and accept the hospitality of Los Angeles. The American Institute of Instruction has chosen Montreal for its meeting place in July.

Chicago is a splendid centre for educational meetings. Besides being conveniently located, the city has atmosphere. It has raised to the surface more school problems than any other place in the country. Whether the gain to the children in the schools is the greater or not thereby will be difficult to determine; perhaps it is not. All depends, naturally, upon the spirit in which the discussions are carried on. However, as between a place where educational questions are more or less under fire at all times and the school system which has snuggled down into a settled routine, the former condition is more hopeful than the latter. It is only natural that many superintendents should be constantly

praying for peace and quiet. Routine has many attractions. The superintendent who has settled all questions, past, present, and future, to his own satisfaction, has an easier time of it than one who is forever struggling for fuller visions of truth. He can give his whole strength to keeping his fences in repair and surrounding himself with influential friends who will sustain him against disturbers of his repose. He will try to make positiveness pass for conviction; mandate for superior judgment; silence, with a cynical smile upon its lips, for the wisdom of an expert. He has completed the circle of perfection. There is nothing new under the sun; then let us be content with the former things, and assign to Pluto's abode whosoever and whatsoever interferes with the smooth running of the machinery of the system.

The seeker for light does not manage schools by issuing general orders. He is ever on the lookout for new developments. In the meekness of his consciousness of imperfection he believes he can learn of any one who has achieved something. It never occurs to him that his appointment as principal of a New York City school relieves him of the necessity of keeping in touch with the progress of education outside of the sacred limits. In fact, he has almost a passion for growth. New educational ideas, whether originated in Keokuk, Ishpeming, or on the corner of Fifty-ninth Street and Park Avenue, have an irresistible attraction for him, if they only help to throw light upon his work and reveal more fully the possibilities of the school. He does not build upon the sands of present official favor, nor does he trust to a legal break-water to insure his tenure of office. He seeks first the kingdom of God, seeks it always without wearying, and wins human freedom thereby. He need not be a truckling, cringing slave. He can hold his head high. His work speaks for him. The day is not far distant when people will know how to determine the efficiency of a teacher. Then the reckoning will come. Blandishments and "pull" will no longer afford protection.

Many signs point to a more adequate and increasingly intelligent participation of the public in educational affairs. The spread of the parent-teacher associations in the city of Philadelphia is a case in point. These associations meet in the school buildings, and a few are developing into flourishing neighborhood clubs. The organization of communities around the schools as the common social centre is advancing apace. Perhaps the truism of the future will be, As is the community, so is the school; it certainly should be.

The schools are much in need of the sympathetic coöperation of the intelligent layman. The theories of educators are apt to be formed of psychological vapors, more or less dense. Experimenting has strong

attractions. The man who pays the bills is, if he is at all interested, more concerned about results than about the sublimity of the principles governing the ways by which those results were achieved. His judgment would be a solid help. At any rate, it would serve as a useful balance wheel. The story is told of a great surgeon who described to an admiring congress a wonderful operation performed by him. The practical results were not mentioned; they were of no interest to the professionals; they concerned only the family of the deceased. The moral applies to education with far greater force, because in the school world the results are not always as obvious to the layman's eye as in medicine.

New York City furnishes a striking illustration of a school system left almost wholly to the devices of people supposed to be experts in matters educational. The size of the city, the complete concentration of administrative matters, the constant excitement and the complexity of the situation generally, have combined practically to silence the expression of public opinion concerning school affairs. Since the great agitation for charter revision which led to the establishment of the present system in 1901, there has been only one really noteworthy utterance of lay opinion with regard to the educational machinery now in operation, and that one is of very recent date and in the form of an article published in the Brooklyn "Eagle" of March 5, by Mr. Frank H. Partridge, of the New York City Board of Education.

Mr. Partridge charges the city system with indirection, waste, and inefficiency. He scores the method of administration in which meetings at Fifty-ninth Street, resolutions, by-laws, and circulars take the place of personal inspection, correction, and encouragement of class work. He suggests a charter revision to readjust the city superintendent's duties. The superintendent has too much armchair work, too much presiding over meetings of his boards of superintendents, examiners, and retirement. Mr. Partridge's sensible suggestion is that a school superintendent should really superintend; presiding at meetings does not do it. No one in charge of such complex work as the education of children can carry it on by orders and directions issued from his office. You cannot pour advice into teachers in the assembly-hall and expect to have this put into practice if you do not go around in person and follow it up. The constant sending out of circulars to principals and teachers is a waste of time and money. "Absent treatment" in school superintendence, with the panacea too far removed, does not reach the seat of the trouble. Most of the principals who get this circular advice on the method of carrying school books or celebrating Longfellow's birthday already know what to do. Their being lectured so much is

practically a reflection on their ability. The superintendent would do better to find out who the men and women are who need such admonition, and let the others go their own way. He should get out and visit schools in all the boroughs, get into institutions that now are to him only designating numbers, and should learn actual conditions for himself, overcoming inertia, reviving and sustaining interest, uplifting school work. It would be well, too, says Mr. Partridge, for the other people in the school system to bear in mind their own shortcomings. The board of superintendents ought to show some initiative without the aid of the city superintendent.

Mr. Partridge scores another interesting point when he declares that State licenses should be recognized at their face value for eligibility to appointments in New York City without the present elaborate and expensive system of re-examination. It certainly is absurd to have in this State one standard for teaching in Yonkers and another across the street in New York. A graduate from the State Normal College at Albany or from any of the State normal schools in the commonwealth ought not to be put through the absurd process of a re-examination by the local board of examiners. The eligible list has been made so sacred that the schools cannot get enough teachers.

Mr. Partridge declares that technical schools for boys are needed, in which they can be started on the road to fill positions as skilled workers. All girls' high schools should have courses in the accepted conventionalities of social life, house management, economies, and the training of children. The school organizers should recognize that the girl is going to be a woman, not a man. Her studies should be based on womanly instincts and should strengthen the powers that spring from them. Public education is fatuous if it leads girls away from marriage and its responsibilities. All this is splendid counsel, and well worth impressing upon the board of superintendents.

It should be noted that since his appointment upon the Board of Education, Mr. Partridge has devoted his entire time to public service. He has visited many schools and knows whereof he speaks. Moreover, he is very much in earnest. His training as a builder of street railways has made him sceptical as regards theories and insistent upon personal study of conditions before expressing judgment. He has practically lived in the schools since his appointment on the board, and the remedies he suggests are such as appear to him much needed as a plain business proposition.

Of course, there is President Roosevelt. He does not hesitate to express his views upon education as on other matters. His interest in the schools lies pretty close to his heart. His own children have

attended the common schools, and he has kept himself informed concerning educational progress. A few weeks since he wrote a notable letter to the president of the Washington branch of the National Playgrounds Association, in which he puts himself squarely on record in favor of the endeavors represented by that organization. This letter is so full of sound advice that I give it here almost in full for the good it may do for the cause of health and vigor:

. . . I am especially pleased with the prospect of Congress granting this year an appropriation for the purchase of playground sites. I trust that the bill of Representative Boutell will also go through, so that you may be able to secure sites in the various quarters of the city now while open spaces still exist and before the price upon them becomes prohibitive. The plan of playground development for the District has been so carefully drawn that I hope it may be carried out substantially as outlined. I regard this as one of the most important steps toward making Washington the model city which we all feel that the Capital of this nation should be.

I have been pleased to see also that there is a new interest in play and playgrounds all over the country, and that many cities that have not taken up the movement in a systematic way have made a beginning this year. . . . In Germany a large number of games have been put into the school course as a part of the school system, thus extending the method of kindergarten through the elementary school. In England football and cricket have been a part of the school course at Eton, Rugby, and most of the other public and preparatory schools for many years. In the private schools of this country similar to these English schools, such as Lawrenceville, Groton, St. Paul's, and many others, play is also provided for in the curriculum. I hope that soon all of our public schools will provide, in connection with the school buildings and during school hours, the place and the time for the recreation as well as study of the children. Play is at present almost the only method of physical development for city children, and we must provide facilities for it if we would have the children strong and law-abiding. We have raised the age at which the child may go to work, and increased the number of school years. These changes involve increased expense for parents, with decreased return from the child. If we do not allow the children to work, we must provide some other place than the streets for their leisure time. If we are to require the parents to rear the children at increased expense for the service of the State, practically without return, the State should make the care of children as easy and pleasant as possible. If we would have our citizens contented and law-abiding, we must not sow the seed of discontent in childhood by denying children their birthright of play.

City streets are unsatisfactory playgrounds for children because of the danger, because most good games are against the law, because they are too hot in summer, and because in crowded sections of the city they are apt to be schools of crime. Neither do small back yards nor ornamental grass plots meet the needs of any but the very small children. Older children who would play vigorous games must have places especially set aside for them; and, since play is a fundamental need, playgrounds should be provided for every child as much as schools. This means that they must be distributed over the cities in such a way as to be within walking distance of every boy and girl, as most children cannot afford to pay car-fare. In view of these facts cities should secure available spaces at once, so that they may

not need to demolish blocks of buildings in order to make playgrounds, as New York has had to do at a cost of nearly \$1,000,000 an acre.

Neither must any city believe that simply to furnish open spaces will secure the best results. There must be supervision of these playgrounds, otherwise the older and stronger children occupy them to the exclusion of the younger and weaker ones; they are so noisy that people living in the neighborhood are annoyed; they are apt to get into the possession of gangs and become the rendezvous of the most undesirable elements of the population; the exercise and play is less systematic and vigorous when without supervision; and, moreover, in all cities where the experiment has been tried it has been found that such playgrounds are not well attended.

The progress made in the extension of public playgrounds is very slow. Perhaps we ought to be thankful that there is any progress at all. It is astonishing that a thinking people should not appreciate more readily the hygienic and moral gain to be derived from out-door play. Our country is away behind Great Britain and the British colonies in this matter. Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, and Switzerland, too, are far ahead of us. Sitting on the bleachers cheering baseball teams and football players does not make us a sport-loving people. The money we pay to see trained athletes at exercise does not purchase for us health or brain. We ought to be at play ourselves. Wherever a few Englishmen live together, they soon organize themselves into cricket teams, and Scotchmen will have their curling. With us, the typical procedure in pioneer communities seems to be to provide speedily for either a liquor saloon or a grocery store with soap-box seats for the discussers of politics and the ways of politicians. Our boys outgrow play at too early an age, and our girls at a still earlier one. The high-school period marks the finish of free out-door play for most girls, and boys pass into sedentary masculinity soon after. It is because of this American indifference to out-door exercise that special agitation is required to awaken the public conscience to the necessity of supplying public playgrounds. If the public attitude were the right one, no school would be erected without its playground and its gymnastic apparatus, made accessible to young and old after school hours. The neglect of this matter is to our discredit as a people.

While we have been remiss in the matter of supplying opportunities for play, we have to our credit the extension of the people's lecture movement in the common schools. During this winter many new centres have been established over the whole country. The movement had its rise and has found its highest development in New York City, under the leadership of Dr. Henry M. Leipziger. To his faith, his zeal, his intelligence, is largely due the success that has been achieved. He undertook the work with a definite ideal in mind, which gradually

developed into a clearly organized scheme of a great people's university. In the beginning the object was to help particularly those who, coming to us from foreign lands, were anxious to know more of our government, the history of our institutions, and the resources of the United States. At present every adult desirous of instruction in the things that make for a broader outlook upon life, and for greater ability in coping with the problems of our complex civilization, is given the opportunity to obtain expert guidance and direction.

The class of people that attend the free lectures is made up of representatives of the most hopeful part of the community. Mothers anxious to learn how to meet the exigencies involved in their various responsibilities, laboring men and clerks who want to keep their souls alive by contact with the better things of life, young men and young women engaged in shops and office work who desire to supplement their early education by acquaintance with things for which an interest has been awakened — these and others like them go night after night to the public lectures. The audiences range from the humblest illiterate groping for light to those who have had the best educational advantages that money, effort, or ambition could command. In the office of a friend there are three young women, all well educated, one of whom attends a course in the history of music, another a historical course, and the third a series of lectures on first aid to the injured.

The free public lecture courses supply the very best possible substitute for a college education. An atmosphere of seriousness and helpfulness pervades everything. Usually the lectures are followed by profitable discussions. Books are suggested for collateral, supplemental, and expansive reading. The suggestions are conscientiously followed out. The public libraries furnish abundant testimony to the earnestness of the attendants at lectures. Invariably there is much call for the books whose reading has been advised. New York City has set an example that may well be followed by every school community in the world. Her generous support of the idea is among the best things that are recorded to her glory.

Of course, the lectures cannot altogether take the place of the night schools. These latter institutions supply more directly the elements of instruction. They deal with those who want to become proficient in the three R's. That is their chief concern. They afford to the adult an opportunity to acquire the things that are generally considered part of a rudimentary, elementary education. Their principal appeal is to the immigrants and to those whom economic necessities or other reasons have deprived of American common-school privileges.

Representative James M. Esler has introduced in the Pennsylvania

Legislature a bill authorizing the establishment of night schools for immigrants in labor camps. What a camp school can do has been effectively illustrated by Miss Sarah Wool Moore, of the Society for Italian Immigrants. Her school in a camp shack near Pittsburg proved a blessing to many. Wherever there is an expressed desire for instruction tending to economic improvement and more efficient citizenship, there should be ready response. The Italians appear to be especially good material. Usually their early education has been neglected, but they are ambitious for improvement. Their frugal habits give them much unoccupied leisure time, which people of other nationalities are apt to consume in liquor shops. The Americanization of foreigners so-called is not accomplished by prohibitory methods, and anti-this and -that organizations. A positive programme alone can assure success. Substitution of something better for that which is undesirable is the surest method of progress. The common schools may be made for everybody the open door to economic and social improvement, to sociability, to greater efficiency, and to all that makes for an increase of human happiness.

The statistics of crime seem to indicate that the comparatively largest number of evil-doers are recruited from the children of immigrated parentage. The foreigner, born and bred, is himself not half as serious a menace to our institutions as nativistic orators would make him appear. Even if he have criminal tendencies, the strangeness of his new environment will necessarily restrict the exercise of them. Moreover, the European governments watch closely all outgoing steamers. Our immigration inspection has become very exact. This furnishes another means of eliminating the undesirable. If we could be as sure of the desirability of the citizens added to us by birth as we are of those we acquire by immigration, our sociological problem would be comparatively simple.

The principal difficulty is with the children of certain classes of immigrants. The Polish and Russian Jews furnish a striking example. Ordinarily, the children of these people are brought up strictly under the authority of the law. In fact, the keystone of Jewish discipline is the law. Respect for the parents is developed as a fundamental and natural virtue. The children regard their parents *in loco Dei*, and their counsels to them are conclusive. The immigrant Jew finds himself in a civilization utterly foreign to him. His inability to speak the language of the country puts him at a disadvantage. While his children go to school and pick up in the streets a knowledge of conditions, he is compelled to concentrate his strength upon his ill-paid work, to earn enough to supply his family with the necessities of life. His habits stamp him as an exotic. His children, adapting themselves readily to

the life of the New World, become his teachers. He loses his place of authority. To the limited judgment of the young, American freedom is synonymous with license. Every call to duty, every form of repression, every assertion on the part of their elders of disciplinary authority, is resented as springing from the ignorance of the "greenhorn." In a frantic endeavor to regain control over their children, the parents will, after a hard day's labor, attend night schools and lectures and pore over books, to become initiated in the mysteries of Americanism. In spite of their pathetic struggle, they frequently remain behind in the race for the acquisition of the things that count most in the business world of the poor. Unable to retain their own authority, and unfit to instill intelligent notions of the respect for law and order which is characteristic of the best American citizenship, they may sometimes have to bear the additional sorrow of having one or the other of their children sent to prison as dangerous to society.

Now it would seem only just that the immigrant should receive friendly counsel and assistance, not only for his own sake, but for the sake of his children. To be sure, there are night schools, and many of them have courses for his special benefit. But attendance at these schools is not always encouraged as much as it should be. School authorities too often make the mistake of treating the night schools as philanthropic concessions to ignorance. There is too little thought of the sacrifices which the attendance of the adult pupil represents. He has worked hard during the day and his physical fatigue should receive due consideration. The surroundings and the lessons cannot be made too attractive. It is possible to have a spirit of good cheer prevail in these schools.

The adult pupil hungers for encouragement. His daily burden is one of struggle against heavy odds. He has no relatives to sympathize with him. He is face to face with a situation in which nothing is considered but his wealth-producing qualities, and these are usually exploited by people who flourish from the labor of others. He should be able to look forward to the hours of night school as a comfort and joy and inspiration, and a means by which he may rise in point of efficiency and industrial independence. Springfield, Massachusetts, has done much pioneer work in this direction. Other communities have done more or less to advance the cause. Still, we have only begun to touch the problem. The community that takes proper care of its immigrants is thereby adding to its prosperity, industrially and morally.

Wilbur S. Jackman, dean of the School of Education of Chicago University, died suddenly on January 28. He was only fifty-two years of age, and was full of plans for the future. He was one of the faith-

ful, plodding schoolmen who quietly toil for the enrichment of the education of American youth, finding their principal reward in the consciousness of serving to uplift mankind. His distinctive achievement is the introduction of nature study in our elementary schools. If I am not mistaken, he originated the very term Nature Study. He was identified for so many years with Colonel Parker that his own personality was not always separated from that of the giant reformer. People failed to take appreciative account of the manner in which he gave practical shape to the Colonel's theoretic discoveries.

Jackman was a native of Pennsylvania. He was brought up in Washington County, attended district school in winter, and performed the numerous duties that fall to the lot of an only boy on the farm. He taught his first term in the primary classes of a graded school. When in 1875 the State Normal School at California, Pa., was opened, he entered it, and after graduation became an instructor in the institution. Desirous of completing his education, he attended Alleghany College, and later Harvard University. After graduation from the latter institution in the class of 1884, he was for five years at the head of the department of biology in the Central High School of Pittsburgh.

Jackman's identification with the Cook County Normal School was an event of considerable importance, both for the institution and for the common schools of the country in general. Colonel Parker's inspirational personality enlisted the whole force of his energy in the reorganization of school programmes. His boyish experiences on the farm, his love for nature, and his special interest in biology, combined, led him to work out a coördination of studies with nature study as the central idea. Colonel Parker saw in it an exemplification of his own passionate striving for the redemption of children from the bookishness of the traditional school. Jackman's plan of bringing all studies into organical relation to nature study and practically subordinating them to this centre, pleased him so that it became part and parcel of his own educational idea. To Jackman then belongs the credit of having given to nature study a significant place in elementary-school programmes. At the time of his work in the Cook County Normal School, one of his associates wrote, "In organizing the science work, Mr. Jackman has organized the school."

Jackman has always taken a deep interest in the development of pedagogy, but his principal work has been in the special department with which his name is most closely identified. He was enthusiastic, generous-hearted, unselfish, a genuine friend, and a true teacher, whose memory will be cherished by those who knew his worth.

OSSIAN H. LANG.

PRESENT-DAY TENDENCIES IN FICTION.

FOR good or ill, fiction is the most widely read form of literature in the present day. It, therefore, affords the best gauge of the tastes of the general community. We can understand the mind of the public more correctly by watching its preferences in the matter of novels than by any other test — except perhaps the newspapers and magazines, and even in these, fiction supplies no inconsiderable element.

In an inquiry of this kind it is obviously to the younger writers that most attention should be paid. The work of the seniors may be intrinsically of higher literary quality, and may enchain the interest of the critic, if not of the average reader, to a greater degree than that of less experienced craftsmen; but it is not so instructive as an index of tendency. A new novel by Mr. Howells or Mr. Meredith would almost certainly be more valuable in itself than any of the books to be considered in this article, but it would have less to tell us concerning the movement of current thought and opinion. As men of observation and sympathy, they are, of course, not insensitive to contemporary feeling; yet, after all, both their style and their outlook show mainly the influence of antecedent generations. The literature which impressed them in their formative years was the product of earlier periods, and the constituency to which they have been accustomed to address their appeal was confronted by problems and inspired by ideals differing in many respects from those of to-day.

In deciding that, for the specific purpose above mentioned, we must eliminate all writers over fifty years of age, we are by no means suggesting that they are to be regarded as "on the shelf." It is rather their books that we delight in placing there, as having won the right to a permanent foothold in our libraries. The juniors, while more directly representative of the life of the twentieth century, have still to make good their claim to inscription on the roll of honor. Meanwhile, their books are "on the table" for inspection and appraisal.

Mrs. Mary E. Wilkins Freeman has long held a high place in the regard of readers of fiction. It might therefore appear at a first glance that she should rightfully be exempted from the inquisition to which those writers are subject who are still in the experimental stage. It

is, however, by her short stories that she has gained her distinguished reputation throughout the English-speaking world. At one time and another she has tempted fortune with a long novel, but she has not yet achieved anything like an equal success by the work she has done outside of her accustomed *métier*. "By the Light of the Soul"¹ confirms once more the accepted critical opinion that the qualities required in these two varieties of fiction are by no means identical.

Standing in the very front rank as a painter of literary miniatures, Mrs. Freeman declines to a position of disappointing mediocrity when she uses her brush upon a large canvas. Certain passages in the book, it is true, give some hint of her real strength. In her detailed analysis of the emotions awakened by a particular incident we find indications of her former skill. For example, Maria Edgham's state of mind on her mother's death, on her father's remarriage, and on her first day of teaching at Amity is portrayed in each case with convincing faithfulness to life. But a long novel is not to be estimated as the sum of a number of situations considered as detached items. Its quality is mainly gauged by one or both of two things — the plot and the development of character. Now in this instance the plot is little short of grotesque, and the development of character is confused and almost bewildering. The absurdity of the central improbability of the story, the New York marriage, is too obvious to need to be dwelt upon.

A further objection is that the story has no real ending. The last chapter is no dénouement at all, but simply adds another coil to the problem. If Maria had drowned herself in Fisher's Pond, the solution might have appeared hackneyed and inartistic, but it would at any rate have been a solution. As it is, we shut the book wondering what will happen to Maria when she returns to Miss Blair: whether the possibilities of coincidence, in which the author has evidently a generous belief, will never expose her to the risk of meeting her Edgham or Amity friends; whether she is henceforth to dwell in a society so remote from the other sex that no further appeal will be made to her affection; and whether with her sensitive conscience she will live quite happy ever after, undisturbed by the recollections that her own lack of courage has condemned her ardently-beloved sister to a lawless union.

As to the people involved in this drama, it is plain that Mrs. Freeman herself has not reached a clear conception of either their personal appearance or their character. Aunt Maria, who on page 40 is a "stout, elderly, woman," has shrunk eight pages later to a woman with a "thin body," and the qualities of mind and heart she reveals during the greater part of the story differ widely from those of the period when she is housekeeper.

¹ New York and London: Harper.

to her brother-in-law. Evelyn Edgham's fluff of yellow hair suddenly changes, with no reason assigned, to a head of dark curls. The principal figure, Maria Edgham, is an irritating puzzle. We are even denied the necessary data for a knowledge of her age at some of the most important turning-points in her history. The author appears to have two minds on the subject, and is still describing her as a mere child when fellow-passengers in a street-car speak of her as a "young woman."

The representation of Maria's character is of a piece with the other vaguenesses and self-contradictions. Special emphasis is laid on the New England strain in her heredity, and we are expected to regard her as almost a miracle of self-control. At the same time, she completely loses her head in every emergency. Her unthinking impulsiveness comes out not only in the freaks of her childhood, but in several incidents of her adult years — in her rude and hysterical outburst at the Ramsey house, in her extraordinary trick of arranging her hair so as to turn it into a disfigurement, and especially in her two wild and aimless flights first to Ridgewood and later to New York. The New-England conscience may possibly be deficient in a sense of proportion — a characteristic which must be taken for granted in order to explain Maria's repeated distress at the thought of any discovery of the New York marriage — but it is flatly inconceivable that in disappearing from Amity so scrupulous a woman should have suffered no twinges at the ingratitude she was thus showing toward her aunt, to say nothing of her strange contentment, as already remarked, with the position in which she left her sister.

The principal effect of this book is one which, it may be presumed, was very far from the author's own intention. As a story it is naught and as a study of character it is muddled and unmeaning, but as a picture of school life it leaves a distinct impression on the mind of the reader. American teachers might well draw up a petition to Mrs. Freeman praying her to leave them and their work alone when next she takes up her pen. I have read much that has been written in criticism of American educational ideals and methods, but I have seldom come across anything as damaging as this unconscious accusation by an American writer. The conditions herein described are such as to amaze foreign readers. "If Miss Wilkins's description is true," comments Dr. Robertson Nicoll, in "The British Weekly," "the results of mixed education in America must be very bad." A critic in another influential English paper sums up the book as "a tragedy of co-education." This novel not only represents the life of the co-educational academy as vitiated by an unhealthy and constant emotionalism, but also brings into strong

relief the evil side of the mixing of all sorts and conditions of children in the common school.

Quiet and undistinguished surroundings also form the setting of "A Blind Bird's Nest,"¹ in which Miss Mary Findlater has skilfully depicted the commonplace every-day routine of a Devonshire village. Its general atmosphere is restful but not dull, and its tenderness and charm give it an attractiveness that is often wanting in books of greater vigor. Here, too, the heroine is a girl whose early life is darkened by melancholy, and whose craving for sympathy and love is the source of her chief perplexities. Agnes Sorel lies under the shadow of an evil inheritance not because of any taint in the blood, but because her father has had to expiate by a long imprisonment the sudden passion which led him to take the life of his sister's betrayer. For a time this family disgrace seems destined to wreck Agnes's own future, but the issue is in accordance both with our natural desires and with the requirements of artistic effect. The series of events which brings her to the happy betrothal with which the book closes makes no strain upon our credulity and the development of her nature under trial is sketched with unusual insight.

The minor characters are interesting and consistent — if anything, too consistent. The writer lets some of them run away with her until they are in danger of becoming caricatures. Aunt Clare is selfish with a selfishness which we feel sure would have been intolerable and would therefore not have been tolerated. Miss Ellen Briggs is an entertaining specimen of the habitual invalid; but her hypochondriacal anxiety about diet reaches an unimaginable point when she gravely remarks, as a gull snatches away a piece of the cocoanut cake she has herself declined, that the morsel will be "bad for the poor bird." Miss Maria Briggs, her cheerful, kindly, blundering niece, is well drawn until she is overdrawn. When she observes on page 136 that "of course, misfortunes will happen in the best regulated families, as Matthew Arnold says," the collocation is as funny as it was meant to be. But when, on page 211, she remarks that "circumstances alter cases, as Matthew Arnold says," the sensation of amusement refuses to return. Within the next twenty-five pages we find similar banalities ascribed to Matthew Arnold again, to Heine, and to Swinburne, and at each repetition our annoyance waxes. You can overdo a good thing, as Henry James says.

A similar objection does not lie against the representation of Mr. and Mrs. Lascelles, the vicar and his wife, who "belonged to the class of old people who have acquired the prejudices of age without its wisdom and who live like children in a world of their own," of Agnes's grandmother,

¹ London: Methuen.

and of the two American families. The introduction of the last-mentioned into the story gives an opportunity for interesting descriptions of the impression made by American visitors upon Devonshire villagers, and *vice versa*, as well as of the effect of New York in simultaneously bewildering the girl just arrived from England and awakening into fresh activity the American girl returning from a sojourn abroad. It should be added that the marriage in prospect at the end is an international one, but differs from the conventional type in the bride elect being English and the bridegroom American.

In "Paul,"¹ Mr. E. F. Benson shows himself one of the most daring of modern novelists. I do not use this epithet in the cant sense of the term, as denoting that he deals with subjects that it would be more wholesome to leave alone, for we have here no example of tainted or neurotic fiction. He is a daring writer because of his extraordinary presumption upon the confidence and good-will of his readers. He deliberately constructs the first half of his plot in such a way as to produce the maximum of irritation, not to say resentment. Our natural impulse at the end of this section of the book is to throw the whole thing aside and refuse to allow our patience to be abused any longer. The picture of the physically puny but intellectually formidable Theodore Beckwith is too cleverly wrought to be incredible and too subtle to be disgusting, but we feel as though the writer were taking an unfair advantage of us in compelling us to make the acquaintance of so abnormal a creature. If he had not established a claim upon our attention by his previous work, we should ask indignantly whether our imaginations were given us to conceive such a ghoulish figure as this, and should joyfully accept the killing of Beckwith as liberating us from an evil dream and exempting us from the necessity of pursuing the fate of the other characters any further.

But Mr. Benson goes placidly on with his story in the conviction that we shall hear him out, and we do. We then find that the grewsome Beckwith episodes are the fitting and necessary background for a character study of remarkable power and thrilling interest. At first we had thought that the book should properly have been entitled "Theodore," for until the end of the thirteenth chapter he was the outstanding figure and Paul Norris merely one of many victims of his ingenious cruelty; but from this point onward we recognize that what has gone before is preparing the way for the great conflict between inclination and duty that has been fought out in the soul of Paul.

¹ London: Heineman. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

A young man of much personal charm and of habitual gayety of spirit is suddenly staggered by a tragedy in which his own share is so strangely complicated that it is impossible for us who know all to pronounce him either innocent or guilty. It was an accident and no murder, an accident in which Paul even risked his own life to save that of his enemy; yet, paradox though it may be, there was in the deed a sufficient element of murderous intent to plant a sting of ceaseless self-reproach in the conscience of the unhappy cause of it. This agony of the man who cannot acquit himself, though the world holds him blameless and even admires his magnanimity, presents to the novelist a much more intricate problem than that familiar subject, the inexorable remorse of the undetected criminal.

The terror of Paul Norris is not that of Bill Sikes. But the alleviation which is open to the most brutal offender against the laws of society tempts him also. There is one unfailing means of expunging the sense of evil and of removing what its victim persuades himself is a morbid sense of responsibility. The alternate exhilaration and despair, the comfort and the burden, the valorous resolutions and the ingenious self-deceptions of the secret drinker are here portrayed with graphic power. The steady degradation of character that we are watching is the result not of sensual self-indulgence — for Paul does not drink for drink's sake — but of an almost panic-stricken impulse to snatch at anything that promises an anodyne for the poison of remembrance. Until within a few pages of the close, we are kept in suspense as to whether Paul's enemy and persecutor, by the mere memory of the tragedy that cut him off, is to work more havoc after death than in life and is to drive him to utter collapse, body and soul.

It is no small triumph for a writer to make us admit, when so near the dénouement, that we have not the least idea how it will all end and that whether Paul goes to the bad or pulls himself together the conclusion will in either case be entirely credible. The passage in which the crisis is reached and Paul is delivered at one stroke both from his mental obsession and from his debasing habit is, for its dramatic interest, the culmination of the whole story. If we laid the book aside now it would be with the satisfaction that comes from the relief of an almost personal anxiety. Yet the two chapters that remain by no means produce the effect of an anti-climax. For one moment we apprehend that we were over-hasty in our anticipation of a "happy ending," and that though Paul has been saved from the curse that has been dogging him, he is to have but a brief enjoyment of the expected boon. The apprehension passes and the incident that has caused it is found to be the one thing that was needed to complete and assure the happiness that it threatened.

A book which appeals so strongly to the deepest emotions requires a considerable intermingling of lighter elements if it is not to produce at times a sense of unbearable strain. This need is supplied by the cleverness of the dialogue, the variety of the minor characters, and the artistic quality of the descriptions of Italian and English scenery. The figure of Mrs. Mundy shows that a cheerful contribution to the general effect of a story may be made by the introduction of a person who is incurably pessimistic. Such is her habit of mind that as she is engaged on a water-color of the Bay of Salerno she manages to infuse into the radiant Italian sunshine something of her own melancholy. "One felt that it might begin to rain any minute." The Archdeacon's wife also adds much to our pleasure, as does Lady Ravenscroft, who "did not like money in the least — she only disliked the absence of it, which is a far different matter."

In "The Fighting Chance,"¹ Mr. Robert W. Chambers advances what on the face of it is a novel prescription for inherited moral disease. Stephen Siward has so far given way to the hereditary vice of drunkenness that most of his intimates regard him as already doomed. Sylvia Landis is alarmed by the knowledge that, in her own words, "in three generations every woman of my race has gone wrong." The means of the salvation of both Stephen and Sylvia is their union to one another.

It must be admitted that this is a crude statement of the motive of the book and needs important qualifications. In the first place, the two cases are really not parallel, for while Stephen has again and again been mastered by his besetting curse, Sylvia cannot reproach herself with more than a few impulsive indiscretions stimulated by the mere joy of living. Then the author himself suggests, in his final paragraph, that Stephen's fight is not entirely over. "Deep in his body, as he stood there, he heard the low challenge of his soul on guard; and he knew that the Enemy listened."

But these qualifications do much to impair the effectiveness of the story. The first of them practically eliminates from the problem any special risk attaching to Sylvia beyond that to which any attractive girl of high spirits, whatever her family history, is exposed amid the temptations of modern society. The author, desiring to win our sympathies in her behalf, has hesitated to picture her as a woman corrupt in grain, and by this hesitation he has made it easy for us to believe that marriage with the man who attracts both her love and respect will secure her permanent happiness. If he had put in Sylvia's place a woman with Agatha Caithness's characteristics, he would have been actually face to face with the difficulty which he now evades. As to

¹ New York: Appleton. London: Constable.

Stephen, the most that can be said is that he receives powerful help in his struggle with the fiend from the devotion of one who calls out the best that is in him. We are not quite convinced that Beverly Plank's support, which has sustained him through part of the conflict, might not have been equally efficacious if it could have been ministered to him as constantly as that of a wife. The net result is that the apparent solution has little practical significance. Mr. Chambers offers only an inconclusive answer to the question of tainted heredity in the case of the man, and does not tackle it at all in the case of the woman.

The various phases of Stephen Siward's fight against his temptation suggest a comparison with the similar struggles recorded in "Paul." Paul Norris, it will be remembered, has no hereditary vice to grapple with, but flies to drink as a relief from unpleasant meditations. In his case we are more poignantly affected than in Stephen's, for we have here nothing of equal power to the representation of Paul's gradual weakening of will and the insidious overgrowth of deceitful tendencies only half recognized by their victim. But while Mr. Chambers's analysis is not as masterly as Mr. Benson's and does not so deeply stir our emotion, it is well proportioned to the scale of the book as a whole. Up to the crisis, Stephen Siward shows stronger traits than Paul Norris; but somehow the tragic note seems less in keeping with the characters of "The Fighting Chance," in spite of the seriousness of its central theme, than with those of "Paul," and a more affecting pathos would have been discordant with the general tone of the society described.

Considered apart from its main theme, "The Fighting Chance" has much to recommend it. One of its principal merits is the admirable study of Beverly Plank, who at certain stages of the story gains our interest to such a degree that we are in danger of forgetting that he is meant to be only a subordinate character. He is, indeed, the least conventional of all the types herein portrayed and stands out prominently against the background of selfish and giddy society folk.

How far Mr. Chambers is correct in his representation of the ways and manners of wealthy and "exclusive" New Yorkers, especially of those who contrive to combine business with pleasure, must be left to the judgment of critics equipped with expert knowledge; but at any rate it is brisk and credible. There are a few delightful side-hits which can be appreciated by any reader of the daily papers, and some of the epigrams, in dialogue and otherwise, are not easily forgotten. That "in New York nothing is really very old except the faces of the young men" is a cynical but memorable saying; and the description of one of the characters as a man who would squeeze a dollar bill till the eagle screams will doubtless help many conversationalists to gain a reputation for brilliance.

Elaborate precautions have been taken by Mr. Arthur Stringer lest "The Wire Tappers"¹ should be left unread. He has remembered most of the demands that can be made upon the modern novelist by various types of readers and has provided within one volume speculations upon moral problems, studies of character, descriptions of some of the most absorbing phases of life in New York, and an exciting plot with a considerable number of adventurous incidents. In the event of the general public failing to respond to this combination of attractions, there remains as a last resort an appeal to the interest of that special class which likes a book well sprinkled with references to box-relays, Bunnell sounders and rheostats, and appreciates a solid block of two pages giving full details of a new electrical invention. One of the leading features of the book would therefore be more fittingly dealt with in the section of "Applied Science" than in that of "Literature."

But there is sufficient movement in the story to carry non-professional readers safely over the obstacles of its technical terminology. The struggle in which Jim Durkin, the former railway telegraphist, and Frances Candler, the ex-governess, are pitted against the resources of the New York detective police is depicted with a style admirably suited to vivid narration. Mr. Stringer's descriptive ability is further shown in his account of the panic in the cotton pit and in other scenes laid in a region of higher respectability than that with which Mulberry Street is ordinarily concerned.

As a psychologist Mr. Stringer is less successful. Both Jim and Frances are intended to appear to us as persons who were not born with especially evil tendencies, but who are prevented by circumstances from being as honest and decent as they would like to be. Frances, in particular, is an incredible character. This associate of the enemies of society, who is compelled to maintain herself by fraud because she has tried in vain to earn a living otherwise, possesses intellectual and educational qualifications which would easily have insured her a professor's chair. When she sees $C_{17}H_{19}NO_8$ on a bottle, she immediately recognizes that it means morphine; she is well acquainted with the literature of modern science, and incidently mentions in a letter that, in order to discover whether she has the traits of the female offender, she has just been taking her cephalic index, testing her chromatic perceptions and her tactile sensitiveness, and making sure that it corresponds normally to a Faraday current; and as to practical electricity, she knows all that is to be known. Her partner describes her as "unyielding, staunch, clean of mind and life, a woman of stern honor — and through it all an adventuress and a robber!"

¹ New York: Little, B. & Co. London: Laurie.

Our difficulty in conceiving such a blend is not removed by the detailed exposition of her attitude at the critical moments of her career. It is obvious that both she and Jim Durkin have been hardly used, but the deliberate choice of evil plays such an important part in the misfortunes of both of them that our sympathy is not greatly aroused. We rather think them lucky in escaping jail and getting clear of the country, and we have little confidence that the new resolutions with which they start life afresh in England will carry them very far.

For sheer ability there are few recent novels to compare with Mr. Jack London's "*White Fang*."¹ In this book he returns to the sphere in which he won distinction as author of "*The Call of the Wild*." Now, however, the development he is tracing is of the opposite type. Instead of picturing the reversion of a dog to the instincts of the ancestral wolf, he shows how a wolf cub with but a small proportion of the dog in its breed may, under civilizing influences, lose its ferocity except for such modicum as is necessary to insure its being worth its keep as a trustworthy protection against burglars. The response is no longer to "the call of the open" but to "the call of the fire and of man — the call which has been given alone of all animals to the wolf to answer, to the wolf and the wild-dog who are brothers."

As an exercise of the scientific imagination, "*White Fang*" marks a notable advance on "*The Call of the Wild*." There is something almost uncanny in Mr. London's representation of the successive stages in the cub's education from the moment that it discovers in the "white wall" of its native cave, through which its father has mysteriously disappeared, an opening into the wide world. So brilliant a study in animal psychology might well tempt a reader of superstitious inclinations to wonder whether there may not after all be some truth in the doctrine of metempsychosis, for the easiest theory to account for Mr. London's wonderful knowledge of the inside of a young wolf's mind is that he must be drawing upon recollections of a previous vulpine period in his own existence.

Mr. London's success in this part of the book is so manifest that it has already encouraged some critics to approve the heresy that human characters are unnecessary to the novelist; and the adventures of animals supply an adequate motive for a thrilling story. Actually it affords a strong argument to the contrary. The interest awakened by this skilful study is not of the kind that is aroused by the masterpieces of fiction. It is rather to be compared to the impression left upon us by a first-class

¹ New York: Macmillan. London: Methuen.

popular scientific lecture. Let any reader try to envisage the tale as it would be left if the human complications were cut out of it, and he will understand how utterly incapable it would then be of standing alone, from the novelist's as distinct from the scientist's point of view. Its real dramatic power is confined to those passages in which the adventures of wolves and dogs are clearly subordinate to those of human beings.

In the whole book there is nothing else so effective as the introductory chapter — the picture of the two men carrying the body of their dead companion in a dog-sled across the frozen wild, their pursuit by a pack of hungry and almost maddened wolves, the tension of their nerves as their resources of defence and escape lessen day by day, the collapse of one of them in his desperate attempt at release and rescue of his partner at the last gasp. As a short story this chapter, creating a sense of tragic horror without repulsiveness, would be perfect of its kind. As the beginning of a long novel it turns all that follows into anti-climax.

Throughout the next sections the story moves on a different plane. We are no longer thrilled by that essential element in vital dramatic interest — the feeling that we are reading of something, which, if our own lot had been cast otherwise, might conceivably have happened to ourselves — but we listen with gratified attention while the accomplished lecturer expounds to us the mysterious operations of animal instincts. Just when the exposition is in danger of becoming monotonous, it is relieved by the appearance of prominent human actors. The brutalities of Beauty Smith and the interposition of Weedon Scott bring us once more into touch with our own kind, and as a result the story immediately tightens its grip upon our imaginations.

Further, even the animal-psychology section owes some of its interest to an unspoken suggestion of a larger application. In his record of White Fang's history, Mr. London recurs again and again to two themes. One is the law which he expresses, in full capitals, by the formula "Eat or be eaten." He shows us that in any conflict between wild animals — wolves, lynxes, porcupines, hawks, or whatever they may be — "the way of life for one lies in the eating of the other, and the way of life for the other lies in not being eaten." His other theme is the supreme importance of environment in deciding which out of various inherited tendencies shall prevail.

Had White Fang never come into the fires of man, the Wild would have moulded him into a true wolf. But the gods had given him a different environment and he was moulded into a dog that was rather wolfish, but that was a dog and not a wolf.

But we have a suspicion throughout that Mr. London has a wider

intention than appears on the surface. He does not deliberately tell us that his story has a parabolic significance, but he gives an easily intelligible hint of it toward the close by his introduction of Jim Hall, the convict. This man, like the creatures of the Wild, can only escape from being killed by killing, and he, too, "a human beast, it is true, but nevertheless so terrible a beast that he can best be characterized as carnivorous," derives his enmity to his fellows in large measure from "the moulding he had received at the hands of society."

It would be an exaggeration to call this novel a Socialistic tract in disguise, but it is certainly not the least clever stroke of its author's that he has succeeded in interweaving into a dog-and-wolf story so subtle a reminder of the pressure of feral conditions in the midst of civilized human society.

The publication of "The Dust of Conflict"¹ by Mr. Harold Bindloss shows that there is still a public for the conventional novel of adventure containing a generous allowance of sharp fighting and hair-breadth escapes. The type may be as old-fashioned as the writer pleases, provided that the setting is of our own time. In this instance the "conflict" is the insurrection in Cuba immediately preceding the Spanish-American War. First as a blockade-runner and later as a member and leader of the band of the Sin Verguenza, Bernard Appleby runs enough risks and performs enough exploits to earn the right of settling down quietly ever after. If, for a moment, we think it strange that a New York merchant travelling in the heart of the disturbed district should have been accompanied by his daughter — and her presence at the capture of a Cuban town by the insurgents is essential to the story — the improbability is soon forgotten in the prevailing turmoil. Coincidences offer their assistance to Mr. Bindloss just at the point where they can be of most service, and he escapes the difficulty of working out the characters of his leading figures by frankly describing them to us in detail in the first chapter. But the book, though of little artistic merit, is exhilarating reading.

Any one who wishes a fresh and sparkling tale combining a love-story with exciting but not improbable adventure will be hard to please if he is not satisfied by the novel in which Mr. Eden Phillpotts and Mr. Arnold Bennett have recently collaborated, and which has been published in England and America under the titles of "The Sinews of War"² and "Dobloons"³ respectively. The familiar compliment that "there is

¹ London: Long. New York: F. E. Stokes.

² London: Laurie. ³ New York: S. S. McClure.

not a dull page in it" would really be its most appropriate characterization. The sub-title, "A Romance of London and the Sea," suggests the range it covers.

The London described is the London of the residential mansion and the sixpenny lodging-house, of the maitre-d'hôtel and the navvy, of the West-end automobile and the Poplar Street car. Its contrasts are foreshadowed on the second page, where Philip Masters is surprised to find himself, in the midst of a city that spends £12,000 a day on cab-fares, with only a sixpenny-piece in his pocket and no prospect of adding to it. Before the book closes he has won £37,500 and the heart of one of the most charming women in England. He reaches this goal by an extraordinary route, starting from a mysterious crime, and passing through a succession of thrilling incidents connected with such apparently unrelated matters as the merits of jiu-jitsu, the elevation of a sensational journalist to the peerage, the science of dactylography, the popularization of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, the dependence of a steam-yacht upon its propeller, the superstitions of West Indian negroes, and the Battle of Tsushima.

Surprise follows fast upon surprise with a stimulating influence upon the reader's wits, which strive in vain to anticipate the next step. The villain of the story is one of the cleverest criminals one might hope to meet in a long course of detective fiction, and his twistings and turnings would do credit to a Prof. Moriarty. And the effect of such a skilful and enthralling plot is heightened by the other features of the story, especially by its delightful vein of satire. After all, I had better withdraw my previous opinion that the qualities of this novel are satisfying: on the contrary, they are so appetizing that we eagerly beseech Messrs. Phillpotts and Bennett for more of the same kind.

In "Privy Seal,"¹ the culminating grievance of Magister Udal against Thomas Cromwell is thus expressed: "Me, the first learned man in Britain, he did force to write a play in the vulgar tongue. Me, a master of Latin, to write in English!" One is tempted to say that Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer, the author of this novel of the time of Henry VIII, has set down Udal's complaint with sincere sympathy, for he appears himself to entertain a strong prejudice against the use of a commonly intelligible speech as the vehicle for his ideas. He would no doubt explain that the pedantry of his style is necessarily assumed in order to reproduce the atmosphere of the sixteenth century. The one fact that what is pedantic now would not have been pedantic then is fatal to the success of any such device. The conversation not of Udal only but of the King himself, of Katharine

¹ London: Rivers.

Howard, and even of Culpepper and Hogben, makes hard reading. The very effort to understand it destroys the illusion, for to those who took part in it was certainly not hard hearing.

Mr. Hueffer's imaginative reproduction of Tudor dialogue is a brilliant tour-de-force, and little more. It is an accomplishment of the same type as the writing of clever Latin verses, and deserves the same praise that is due to skill in such exercises. The book, though not a long one, grows tedious by reason of both the difficulty of its style and the large proportion of details of political and ecclesiastical intrigue. These may have been necessary to a faithful representation of the situation; but if so the natural conclusion is that the subject, however important to the historical student, is not suitable for fiction.

Both the merits and the defects of "Privy Seal" are characteristic of a recent development of the historical novel. The "scientific method" is paramount in the study of history no less than in that of chemistry and biology. There was a time when a comparatively small equipment of research entitled a man to begin writing a tale of past centuries. Nowadays any one attempting such a task must be prepared to be warned off the field as an interloper unless the by-products of his experiment would supply material enough for a doctor's thesis. Anachronism has become an almost unpardonable offence.

It is certainly reasonable to expect that the gains of modern historical study should in some measure enrich historical fiction also; that the novelist should benefit by the new light thrown by research upon the motives of great men and upon the conditions with which they had to deal, and especially that he should not misrepresent, through carelessness or ignorance, the main significance of the periods he professes to depict. There is a level of general accuracy which the writer of historical fiction should be required to reach before being taken into account at all — a qualifying entrance examination, so to speak, to meet him at the threshold of his enterprise. But he is to be judged, in the main, not as a historian, but as a novelist; and he forfeits the end for the sake of the means if he allows the interest of exact scholarship to obscure or deaden the imaginative element.

I read the other day, in a complacent eulogy of the progress of historical research, that it would no longer be possible for any one to write "Ivanhoe," and that if by any chance such a book were written its author would not have the "impudence" to publish it. That no contemporary writer is as yet in danger of being mistaken for a second Scott may readily be admitted; but if there should be latent anywhere a genius of this type, he need not stay in hiding from the fear that the achievements of more scientific writers will have spoiled his welcome.

The last and sprightliest book on my table is "A Midsummer Day's Dream"¹ by Mr. H. B. Marriott Watson. It points no moral and grapples with no problem. Written evidently as an ebullition of high spirits, it will promote in the minds of readers the temper from which it sprang. Its humor keeps well on the right side of buffoonery, although the scene of the tale is laid at a country house party — a situation that so many writers regard as inseparable from practical joking and horse-play. The central idea is the anticipated performance of "A Midsummer Night's Dream" by members of this party for the benefit of a local charity. Actually we do not get beyond the raising of the curtain; but the rehearsals, which take place by moonlight in the glades of Temple Park, supply occasions for the most diverting episodes.

One of the happiest strokes is the notion of securing the village cobbler to play the part of Bottom. His naïf satisfaction at the compliment and his eager desire to utilize the opportunity for the display of his musical talents are very entertaining. The spirit of Puck seems to regulate almost all that happens. Scarcely anything is what it appears to be. "I seem bound to be a mock hero," exclaims Philip Bannatyne; "I save people from all kinds of absurdities — Miss Arden from a bull that's a cow, Miss Latham from a bee that wouldn't bite, and Lady Cynthia from water that wouldn't drown." Philip himself with his "sly audacity" and his "delicate masterfulness" is an entirely delightful person, and we are really somewhat disappointed at the close to learn that he intends to go into Parliament.

One of the great merits of this extravaganza is the cleverness of the dialogue, which is not so uniformly smart as to become monotonous but ingeniously expresses the variety of characters. Altogether, as a provocative of clean and wholesome gayety, "A Midsummer Day's Dream" would be hard to beat.

If the novels discussed in this article are a fair sample of the output of the contemporary press — and they have been chosen without bias from the list of such recent publications as seemed most likely to repay attention — it is clear that the old types bid fair to persist in slightly varied forms. One thing is especially notable in the case of the modern "problem novel." The question with which it is mainly occupied to-day is that of heredity and environment. In one instance, we have even found this subject considered in its application to the life of the lower animals.

From a philosophical point of view, the general presentation of heredity in such novels as these is, perhaps, rather one-sided. There is a tendency

London: Methuen. New York: Appleton.

to take for granted that it transmits evil qualities only, and to neglect its part in the communication of desirable traits also. But in any case one recognizes with satisfaction that the main drift of recent fiction is not pessimistic. The inheriting of evil is not conceived as equivalent to an inevitable doom: by one means or another it may be fought and overcome. So, too, in "Paul," where the trouble is not hereditary but is none the less degrading, it is shown that what is most to be feared is an attitude of hopeless acquiescence.

The literary style of these novels reaches a higher standard than the average of popular fiction a generation ago. There is little slovenly writing in them and little affectation of "fine language." The most carelessly constructed book in this respect is Mrs. Wilkins Freeman's. Here is a breathless sentence reproduced with the author's own punctuation from the seventh page of "By the Light of the Soul":

Harry Edgham came of perhaps the best old family in that vicinity. Edgham itself had been named for it, and while he partook of that degeneracy which comes to the descendants of the large old families, while it is as inevitable that they should run out, so to speak, as flowers which have flourished too many years in a garden, whose soil they have exhausted, he had not lost the habit of rectitude of his ancestors.

In "White Fang," Mr. London unintentionally supplies a warning to writers who are tempted to an ultra-realistic style. He has occasion to describe many sanguinary fights, and in each case he insists on giving full details. At first this graphic manner makes the painful impression desired; but by the time we reach the tenth fight or so we have grown so accustomed to reading of torn throats, split skulls, crunched bones, ripped-up flesh, and the like that these terms become scarcely more significant than the x 's and y 's of an algebraical equation. We accept them as belonging to the conventional formulas of conflict and they cease any longer to arouse a sense of either disgust or horror. Mr. London's excess of realism thus defeats its own end.

It will have been noted that in writing one of these books two authors have coöperated with excellent results. It is a pity that the practice of collaboration is so seldom followed in fiction. In reading "By the Light of the Soul," for example, one cannot help reflecting that if Mrs. Wilkins Freeman were to take into partnership some writer of skill and experience in working on a large scale, the combination of talents might be expected to produce a series of novels of much higher rank than anything she is likely to achieve by her independent efforts.

HERBERT W. HORWILL.

RECENT TRIBUTES TO LONGFELLOW.

ALTHOUGH the bi-centenary of one of the greatest of all British writers, Henry Fielding, occurs this year, there can be little question that for a vast majority of the men, women, and children, who speak and read the English tongue, the chief literary anniversary of this year of grace is the centenary of the birth of the most beloved of modern poets, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The celebration in Sanders Theatre at Cambridge on the evening of February 27 was a memorable testimonial to the strength of Longfellow's hold upon the hearts not only of his fellow New Englanders, but of his fellow Americans; yet, impressive as it was, the meeting was too local adequately to represent and express the love and veneration and gratitude felt for Longfellow throughout our vast country, which, where he is concerned, forgets that its map is defaced by sectional lines. Certainly no such gathering of Longfellow's personal friends could have been held anywhere else, for Prof. Charles Eliot Norton presided; Colonel Higginson and President Eliot spoke, and Mr. Aldrich and Mr. Howells were represented by a poem and by a paper respectively; but other celebrations were marked by the same note of love for the poet and of affectionate pride in his work, and it is not open to doubt that any village in the land could have furnished a worthy and reverent audience and enthusiastic though perhaps not entirely competent speakers.

But, desirable and gratifying though such celebrations as that at Cambridge are, it is in printed rather than in spoken tributes that in this age of readers we may expect to find the most significant and impressive evidence of the breadth and permanence of Longfellow's fame. Of such printed tributes there has been a variety and an abundance. The New York "Times" issued a notable illustrated supplement; a Southern monthly organ of belles-lettres, "The Pathfinder," devoted a small but entire number to appreciations of Longfellow and selections from his works; the magazines and weeklies and dailies teemed with articles, prominent among which were contributions by Mr. Howells, Mr. Bliss Perry, and Mr. Paul Elmer More. But one discordant note seems to have been struck, or at least to have made itself heard, and

that was in an article by a young Englishman which — singular fortune for so poor a performance — was published both on this and on the other side of the water, each time in a periodical of excellent standing. But Mr. Austin Dobson, probably without intending it, made up for this ill-judged utterance by contributing to a London newspaper a sonnet worthy both of his own authentic muse and of his noble subject — a tribute of personal gratitude for Longfellow's achievements as a storyteller in verse, a panegyric none the less attractive because in it the poet seems to have got slightly the upper hand of the critic.

Many of the tributes I have just referred to must, in the nature of things, prove ephemeral; and, indeed, it should be confessed that, despite the wide interest shown in the event, Longfellow's centenary has thus far called forth no very important memorial in the shape of a thoroughgoing study of his life or his writings or a valuable edition of his works, such as the centenary edition of Emerson. But there have been some reprints, and the library of Bowdoin College, the poet's *alma mater*, has issued his inaugural address as professor of modern languages, delivered at that institution on September 2, 1830. This will doubtless fall mainly into the hands of collectors; but it is to be hoped that another small volume recently published will find its way into the hands of thousands of readers.

I refer to a book bearing the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., on the back of which are stamped the two words "Longfellow," "Norton." The title page reads in part, "Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, a Sketch of his Life. By Charles Eliot Norton. Together with Longfellow's Chief Autobiographical Poems." It can be read through in less than two hours, and can be bought for less than a dollar; but neither of these facts should be of use in measuring the amount and duration of the impression it ought to make upon a receptive reader. The poems chosen number thirty, and include "A Psalm of Life," "The Wreck of the Hesperus," "The Bridge," "The Cross of Snow," and other favorites, concluding with "Morituri Salutamus." Perhaps in a few of the selections the autobiographical elements may not be altogether apparent; but that the pure, wholesome nature of the poet and the genuine and well-sustained merits of his art emerge from them all will be disputed only by Longfellow's detractors, who have been keeping themselves somewhat in the background of late and are, it is to be hoped, decreasing in numbers.

As to Mr. Norton's biographical sketch, I can hardly describe it more adequately than by saying that it is in entire harmony with the poems it accompanies. Mr. Norton's rare genius for forming memorable

friendships has been noted so often as to have become a commonplace, though a charming one, in our literary history; his is also the rarer genius of commemorating with unfailing discretion and with sure instinct for the higher values the friendships he has formed and cherished. He has honored other friends in a more elaborate and impressive fashion, but none, I think, with more true sympathy and reverent poise — for surely to lack poise in our relations with the dead is in a very real way to do them a dishonor — than he has displayed in this brief memoir of Longfellow. The essential facts are given, the right note of praise is struck, there is no meaningless and confusing parade of literary references and allusions. In other words, eulogistic biography has its turn, and criticism is left to take care of itself, as it is abundantly able to do.

Perhaps the most valuable point made by Mr. Norton is to be found in the paragraphs in which he shows how completely Longfellow was the product of a simple and refined New England, which had gently broken with the Puritan régime and was filled with an optimistic belief in the orderly evolution of men to individual and national felicity in a new and favored world. Purity, naturalness, and kindness were the fundamental characteristics of Longfellow, and these were in the main the fundamental characteristics of the people who first welcomed his self-revealing poems. His admirable and extensive culture obscured in no measure his moral excellencies and enhanced rather than limited his appeal to readers eager for a broader horizon. It is an interesting proof of the continuity of our national life that, despite the shock of the Civil War and despite the confusion and the perplexities that have resulted from our colossal expansion during the past thirty or forty years, we still as a people open our hearts to the pure, gentle poet who won the hearts of our grandfathers. Perhaps the most encouraging and significant fact about the Longfellow centenary is the proof it affords that, in an epoch that prides itself on its strenuousness, so many strong, thoughtful men have taken delight in expressing their reverence for a man who in his life and in his writings illustrated the truth that to be entirely noble and inspiring human strength must not be divorced from tenderness and purity.

Another significant and encouraging fact is the comparative absence, in most of the tributes I have seen, of the note of colonial subservience and of the note of provincial assertiveness. In an account of the Cambridge celebration published in "The Evening Post," Mr. William Roscoe Thayer emphasized this fact so far as that meeting was concerned, and it was a fact worthy of emphasis. Half a century ago our poet would have run the risk of having his fame compared with that of Mil-

ton, or, better still, with that of Goethe, because both "Evangeline" and "Hermann und Dorothea" are idylls written in hexameters. Or else some one would have been sure to point out that while the "common people" found solace in Longfellow, the élite read Tennyson and Browning. Even twenty years ago, I fancy, the note of depreciation would probably have made itself heard more sharply than it was able to do in the article of the patronizing young Englishman to which reference has already been made.

As it is, I find in nearly all the recent tributes a manly tendency to praise unextravagantly, but heartily and sincerely, Longfellow's personal charm and the beauty and wholesomeness and artistic perfection and wide range of his poetry. There is a frank admission that his work is not uniformly excellent, that some of his more elaborate performances are read even now with difficulty, and that these and probably not a few present favorites will mean little or nothing to posterity. But, on the other hand, there is a firm insistence upon the value of his services as an interpreter of old-world romance and culture to the new, upon the permanent appeal of such simple and true reflective lyrics as "The Bridge," "Daylight and Moonlight," and a score of equally perfect pieces; upon the power and truth of his sea-poetry; upon his mastery of the art of narrative in verse; and, last, but not least, upon the unfailing felicity of his sonnets.

There is no better sign, I think, of a nation's growth in culture than its attainment of a certain poise, a certain consensus of opinion with regard to the achievements of its representative men. Such a poise is, as I have noted, especially characteristic of Prof. Norton's sketch, and I have found it to a considerable degree in most of the tributes to Longfellow that have come to my attention. There is, of course, no complete unanimity as to the merits of this or that poem — if there were, "The Golden Legend" would have been mentioned more frequently — but there is substantial agreement as to the main qualities of the man and his poetry. Meaningless comparisons of his equable genius with the soaring genius of some mighty master have been, as a rule, eschewed, and I have seen very few misplaced or badly chosen superlatives. It is true that I rubbed my eyes when I read certain encomiums passed upon the "Poems on Slavery," moving though that group of lyrics has seemed to me ever since I first encountered it nearly thirty years ago in a copy of Longfellow's works given me as a prize in a Virginia school. But such laudation — out of place almost in connection with Shakespeare or Milton — has, I repeat, been beneficently rare.

Yet here I am, doing precisely the thing I have been praising others

for not doing — introducing the names of other poets and giving plain proof that I cannot, like Prof. Norton, leave criticism to take care of itself. I own that in this respect my pen is very much like the dyer's hand. It almost gets away from me now in its desire, not precisely to subtract from, but rather to qualify and adjust some of the praise that has been unstintingly bestowed of late on our poet's delightful sonnets. But I have it under control, and the last word it shall write here shall be the word that seems best to express the innermost feeling most of us have for Longfellow, the noble man and the representative poet of his people — the word "gratitude."

W. P. TRENT.

OUR MOST ABUSED SENSE — THE SENSE OF HEARING.

It is strange that our sense of hearing, which has been so pitifully stepmothered by Nature in being left absolutely without any protection against the innumerable waves of sound that break in upon it, should also be that which has received the scantest sympathy and attention from the world at large. Not only has Nature left it unprovided with any means of protection against the torment of noise, but, as has been remarked by Mr. William Dean Howells, it has not even permitted kindly Age, which blunts the keenness of all our other senses, mercifully to relieve the torture of unrestrained sound — nay more, it only seems to render us more susceptible to it.

I think that we all, or almost all, suffer from noise, and that we agree with Comenius who, in his "Labyrinth of the World," describes the earth as being full of "knocking, stamping, scrubbing, whispering, and screaming." Alas! if he suffered so much in the streets and squares of his dear seventeenth-century city of Prague, what would that wise old Philosopher have said of the pandemonium of our present-day City of New York?

Of course, there are a few who claim that racket and prosperity are synonymous, and also others who revel in the barbarity of uncontrolled din.

To legislate noises out of the world . . . would take from it all the exuberance, the effervescence and exaltation of soul that gives it sparkle and snap . . . and dam the current of the world's joy,

exclaims a Western paper, and even a staid New York daily maintains that:

Noise is an organic function of a living city; and a growing municipality, like a growing boy, must scream or take to evil ways.

But this attitude toward one of the greatest banes of our times becomes too serious a matter of public concern to be ludicrous when it is shared by Health-Board officials. "We don't pretend to make this city a suitable place for the invalid or nervous to live in," an officer of the Health Department of a large city is reported to have said. This same medical man, when urged to stop a noise that was clearly under the jurisdiction of his Health Board, a noise so dreadful that it prevented even little

children from sleeping, dismissed the whole subject with a shrug and the careless remark: "In my opinion, a city is no place for children."

The medical profession, however, and the press have, with but few exceptions, been unanimous in protesting against the crime of noise, whenever the question has been raised. The Philadelphia "Medical News" says:

In thousands of cases people are being made ill, are committing slow suicide, or are being slowly and painfully killed by useless noises.

Dr. Tracy, one of our former medical officers, declares:

From the fact that invalids and delicately organized people are distressed by constant noise, it is not an overdrawn inference that the terrible racket which assails the ears of people in our time may be one factor in the remarkable increase of insanity.

Dr. Hyslop, the eminent London physician, believes that:

There is in city life no factor more apt to produce brain unrest and its sequels of neurotism than the incessant stimulation of the brain through the auditory organs,

while Dr. Kempster, formerly Commissioner of Health of Milwaukee, states that:

A certain amount of nerve energy is required to resist noises and when these noises are abnormally large they make a great drain on the nervous system.

Dr. Hyslop, speaking of that class of people who have become so habituated to noise that they suffer from its absence and complain of the "deadly calm" of country-life, says emphatically:

In this particular their loss would be but comparable to that of the alcoholic or morphinomaniac who has developed a habit of mind and body which is none the less baneful because its absence might be felt.

Truly has it been said that this morbid sense of loss is the "measure of the injuriousness of the noises of city life." I think that few will deny that noise and worry are more responsible for "breakdowns" than is overwork, or will contradict the statement that noise is one of the chief agents in the production of neurasthenia.

The "hum of industry" has now made way for the shriek of industry, and it is perhaps well to call attention here to the fact that noise is not an essential part of progress. The Detroit "Free Press" clearly states this fact:

It is not long since smoke was regarded as the greatest evidence of industry and activity, an error that is all but banished. There are those who still crudely think noise to be even more incontrovertible as evidence of enterprise and prosperity. . . . Instead of being any longer a visual warrant of industrial thrift, smoke is now regarded as evidence of waste, sloth, neglect, and economic sin. Noise

is no less a waste of industrial energy. Within ten years the noisy city will be under a ban with the smoky city.

The Rochester "Chronicle" also well brings out the same point:

It is not proposed to prevent all movement of which noise is an accompaniment, but only to stifle sounds which waste energy without effecting anything but the needless disturbance of workers. Mere screaming, like senseless talking, prevents rather than promotes achievement. Men who accomplish results are silent, and talk is a substitute for action. . . . The unpreventable noises will afford sufficient evidence that a city is wide awake without the help of those which spring from wantonness, carelessness, or indifference to the welfare of others.

It is difficult to enumerate the various noises which break in upon the ear of the city dweller of to-day, but those which perhaps cause the most suffering are:

1. The blowing of whistles on { factories
trains
boats ,
2. The clanging of bells of { trains
trolley cars
churches and clock towers
3. Loud advertising of { street-venders with cries, whistles, bells,
etc.
amusement parlors, etc., with phono-
graph, etc.
4. Noises of traffic due to defective mechanism:
 - A — trolley cars { pounding of flat wheels
grinding of improperly lubricated
motors, etc.
 - B — wagons' rattling of loose parts, etc.
5. Noises due to badly paved streets.
6. Free exhaust of steam from shunting engines in freight yards.
7. Cries and street brawls.

Let us now take up in detail a few of these noises and see whether they are really necessary. We will begin with the factory whistle.

A physician writing on this subject says:

If there is any one thing proving the unutterable thoughtlessness of man, the stupidity of municipal control, the general idiocy of health boards, it is the shameful permitting of factories blowing piercing blasts in the morning for absolutely no purpose.

Certainly in these days of cheap time-pieces, it is hard to find any reason for blowing factory whistles in the early morning to announce

the hour for beginning work. Our city schools are not equipped with whistles to call the poor little mites of the tenement-house districts to their morning tasks, so why should it be necessary to summon grown-ups to their work? Besides this, it is the starting up and slowing down of the machinery that announce the proper moments for beginning and stopping work. "If the factory whistle is necessary," asks Prof. Morse, of Salem, who for years has fought to suppress it, "why do not all factories sound it? It is never to call men to work, for they are already there: it does not even signify the moment to begin work." Quite recently, Mr. William M. Wood, President of the American Woollen Company of Massachusetts, openly favored abolishing bells and whistles on all the mills in his State, on the ground that great benefit would result to the sick. Prof. Morse has already cited cases of large industrial concerns, like the Pope Manufacturing Company and the Natural Food Company of Niagara, which use neither the whistle nor substitutes for it. Can anything be more pathetically absurd than a case cited of a file factory, employing a man and two boys, where a whistle was blown that not only disturbed the entire neighborhood, but also awakened invalids in the next county?

Prof. Morse has fought the train whistle just as energetically as that of the factory. "One is justified in asking," he says, "why hundreds are denied the comfort of health-giving sleep in order that brakemen may be told to perform some duty at the end of a train. Why shouldn't a hotel have a steam whistle and wake up half the town to inform the porter that a trunk is to be taken up?" The train-whistle nuisance is general, more's the pity, and it would be almost impossible, I think, to find a city or hamlet in the country that was not a victim of this shrieking horror. A Western paper laments:

If smaller communities do not have to hear what the people of New York have to . . . they still have troubles of their own. They may live in a town whose whole area is easily at the mercy of blasts from locomotive engines. They may be compelled to listen to whistles a mile distant which need only be sounded loud enough to warn people a block or two away. They may have to sacrifice their rest that the whole population may know that a train has arrived or that a crossing is being approached.

An idea of the suffering caused by the noise of freight yards was recently given by the testimony of Surgeon Major Balhatche, Superintendent of the Clifton Marine Hospital of Staten Island, before the State Railroad Commission. "I think it likely, though I do not charge it," he said, "that because of these nuisances I have lost patients. I ask you for God's sake to do something." Dr. Balhatche stated that there were almost always three or four engines in front of his hospital, blowing off steam

or tooting, and that in cases of typhoid such noises helped end the lives of patients. That trains are not always run as noiselessly as possible is sometimes recognized by the Railroad Commissioners. In a report of the Massachusetts Commission it was stated that:

Testimony showed the annoyance was increased by the practice of giving long-continued blasts when the shortest would be as effective, and there was evidence of reckless if not malicious noise, the fault, not of the management, but of individual employees.

As regards the boat whistle as generally used, I think that I was able to prove last year that it is a menace not only to health but also to navigation. I contended then that all signals given besides those required by statute were a detriment because they covered or rendered hard to distinguish those necessary for safe navigation, and that there was absolutely no excuse for a tug captain while leisurely making his way up to the pier to whistle loudly for half an hour, in order to summon the scow captain or crew from neighboring saloons or from their sleep below decks. I maintained that signals could be given noiselessly, except in foggy weather, and that the parties leasing the piers could, for a small sum, hire watchmen to summon those attached to the scows so as to be in readiness for the approaching tugs. Sleep would thus not be rendered impossible for a large part of the city's population, to say nothing of the relief thus afforded to the sick and suffering inmates of our municipal institutions along the East River. At that time it was declared that this being a local nuisance on a federal waterway could be suppressed by neither municipal, State, nor federal authorities. In other words, there was no one in all the United States who had authority to regulate the size of a whistle nor the manner in which it might be blown, no one to forbid the smallest tug carrying the largest whistle and shrieking it just as madly as possible. This fight has within the last few weeks been happily terminated by the passage of the Bennet bill, the purpose of which is to give the Supervising Inspectors of Steamboats the right to regulate the whistling done by boats on the waters under their jurisdiction. This bill of Congressman Bennet is, I believe, the only one ever passed by Congress the purpose of which was the suppression of noise.

I believe that the ringing of church bells causes more suffering to the sick and nervous than is generally imagined. Bernard Shaw said that the worst of all noises were the "state-aided" ones, such, for instance, as church bells and military bands. Dr. Hyslop, in his little pamphlet, "Noise in its Sanitary Aspect," mentions a letter sent to the London "Daily Mail" which says:

The doleful and horrible sound of "Big Ben" at midnight and more was answerable for the early departure of more than one soul from its bodily fabric.

The Brooklyn "Times" concludes an editorial on church bells as follows:

Church bells in a city are a nuisance with their noisy clatter or doleful tolling. There can be nothing cheering to a victim of a sickbed in the mournful tolling of some immense bell, apparently prophesying an early parade to the grave.

Another item in this connection is one mentioned by Julius Chambers, which relates to the uproarious ringing every Sunday of a big bell. The sexton was appealed to, but refused to stop the nuisance, replying that "his mission was of God's appointment and that man hadn't any consideration in the matter." Sentiment may demand that bells ring for church services, but it is really difficult to account for the desire that many people experience to hear their lugubrious tolling, which must continue for three-quarters of an hour before they are satisfied. "If my people won't come to church after my bell has rung for three minutes, they may stay away," stoutly declared an English minister whom I recently met abroad, "I don't approve of this long-continued tolling, and I won't have it in my church." Many accounts of the injury that has resulted from the frequent ringing of church bells reach our Society. One relates the agony caused by the clangorous ringing of a church bell while the writer was ill with an attack of typhoid fever, and concludes with the statement: "that bell did more to make me a heathen than anything else in the world." Evidently few of our correspondents think that a movement directed against the excessive ringing of church bells would "remove all the poetry that is left in metropolitan life," as a Trenton daily laments.

Even more unnecessary than the protracted ringing of church bells is the striking of clocks in church towers, for they disturb sick and well, every quarter of an hour, night and day, with their clangorous warning that fifteen more minutes have flown. Of all unnecessary noises, this is perhaps the most wanton and cruel and insistent and indefensible.

Trying to all, but particularly so to those in humble circumstances because they are more exposed to them, are the noises of street venders. From morning till night their cries and noise-making devices resound, while in their incursions they spare no part of the house or yard. An ordinance relating to hucksters, enacted in 1897, declares that no one shall, between certain hours, be allowed to cry his wares within 250 feet of school, court-house, church, or hospital, but this ordinance is certainly a dead letter. Peddlers not only swarm around hospitals to the great detriment of the sick, but they also shout so noisily directly in front of our schools that, at times, even in the warmest weather classes are con-

ducted with closed windows.¹ It certainly seems as if our ordinances relating to street venders required revision. Is there any reason why peddlers should be allowed by ordinance to stand and shout out their wares for a period of thirty minutes on a block? Is it not likely that within a few minutes everybody residing on a block will have been apprised by the vender's harsh cries of the opportunity that is offered, and will have been able to arrive at a decision as to whether a purchase is to be made or not? Why, therefore, should the annoyance be continued for half an hour? Then, too, why should a peddler be allowed by ordinance to stand no further than ten feet away from another peddler who is likewise hoarsely shouting his wares? There is also a peculiar omission in our city ordinances, in so far as no protection (such as it is), is vouchsafed our hospitals between the hours of four and nine p.m. The churches are provided for, because no peddling is allowed on Sunday; the schools are likewise protected because no peddling is allowed, in principle, near a school house between the hours of eight and four; but our city fathers forgot to forbid noise near our hospitals between the hours of four p.m. up to which time it is restricted, and nine o'clock p.m. when a preceding section of the same ordinance declares that all peddling must cease. In the name of our sick hospital inmates we should ask for a revision of this ordinance — and then, after enactment, insist on its enforcement.

Regarding junkmen and ragmen, a recent letter to the Newark "News" justly says:

There is no reason why ragmen should be accorded privileges which in the nature of things would be denied dealers in much more necessary commodities such as meat, bread, etc. The number of ragmen and junkmen is out of proportion to the population. In Newark, for instance, in 1906, with a population of about 287,500, there have been issued about 219 licenses. The license granted ragmen and junkmen is not a license to make nuisances of themselves. It merely allows them the privilege of buying and selling rags, etc.

In this relation, an interesting experiment has been tried at the village of Arverne by the Sea where they have been quite successful in restricting noise by means of taxing hucksters and junkmen for the privilege of making it. Ordinance 37 of this village charges a license fee of five dollars to junkmen, unless the licensee cry or shout or employ one or more bells or other noisy devices, in which case the fee shall be fifty dollars. In the second section of this Ordinance a sum of five dollars is required for each wagon, and for each pack, handcart, or basket-peddler two dollars;

¹The subject of quiet for the school child is one which certainly receives less attention than it deserves. Dr. Hyslop, whom I have already so often quoted, lays stress on the subject of ear-strain and backwardness due to defective hearing.

but if the licensee cry, shout, or use bells or other noisy devices, the license is trebled. The experiment works excellently, and junkmen on entering the village detach their bells from their carts rather than pay the extra license fee necessary to enable them to keep them ringing.

About noises of trolley cars due to defective mechanism a timely illustration is afforded by the D. U. R. which is now causing such distress to the inhabitants of Detroit. This line is said to be superlatively bad even among the trolley car lines of the twentieth century. According to reports that have reached us within the last few days, it is not only ruining health but property as well. Houses shaken and loosened and brick work cracked are the results of wretched rolling stock and loose-jointed tracks. A large railroad train would make less noise, they say, than one of these pounding trolley cars. A letter to the Detroit "Free Press" cites the vigorous action recently taken to remedy a similar state of affairs in Sydney, Australia. The car system there is owned by the government, and when it became outrageously noisy, the people insisted on taking a hand in the matter, especially as the management asserted that conditions could not be improved. A couple of cars were forthwith carried off into the shops, where a committee, including several experts, housed in the motors, and overhauled the bearings, gearings, worn parts, and flat wheels. After that the cars ran noiselessly and the others were brought to the same degree of perfection which they have maintained ever since.

Concerning automobile noises, many believe that horns are unnecessary and only of use to the chauffeur by allowing him high rate of speed. Prof. John Bassett Moore has said that by abolishing the horn one would not only abate a most annoying noise, but would also do away with speeding. Marcel Prévost in the "Figaro" writes:

The only noises that serve as useful warnings are those sounded at a short distance from the person to be warned. As perpetrated to-day, the hoots and honks of motor cars in Paris are chiefly useless save to allow the chauffeur a madder license of speed.

One need only read some of the enthusiastic advertisements in our automobile publications to feel that indeed the time is ripe for an organized protest against the curse of noise. For instance, a siren horn is lauded to the skies because it has a "voice of thunder," a voice that can be "heard from three to five miles!" Think of that! An automobile which is generally limited by law to a speed of eight or ten miles an hour, is allowed to announce its approach half an hour in advance! Another advertisement reads: "The shows won't let us exhibit unless we promise to *muzzle our horn*. Everybody has to get out of business while it is blowing." But we must not conclude that a horn that an-

nounces its approach five miles away is an unrivalled noise freak. Alas! no, for East St. Louis boasts of a monster whistle whose sound spreads over a radius of twenty miles, and reaches a hundred thousand people every time it blows; and a well-known eastern college has a giant bell, weighing seven thousand pounds, whose disturbing power is reported to be no less than St. Louis's great whistle.

The twentieth century may well be termed the Age of Noise. Noises are multiplying everywhere, as regards both number and intensity, and we give a dissenting shake of the head as we read in our Milton:

Midnight brought on the dusky hour
Friendliest to sleep and silence.

Alas! we have no longer any hour that is friendly to sleep and silence.

And now why should all these noises — and these are but a fraction of the many that beat in upon our ears — be permitted slowly but surely to wreck the health of so many thousands of city dwellers? "We all suffer from noise," so many have said to me, "but then it seems *such* a hopeless task to protest against it!" Yes, it does seem almost hopeless now, but I firmly believe that the day is not far distant when an awakened public sentiment will firmly demand the abatement of the crime of noise. As Marcel Prévost says in speaking of cities:

The majority of their inhabitants make no noise. They are the rasped or submissive victims of an impudent minority, and that minority loves noise, produces it with glee, and inflicts it upon the rest of the population as a sign of its suzerainty, as the mark of its right through might.

That public sentiment must be awakened before much can be accomplished in the suppression of noise, is the point on which our Commissioner of Health laid stress in his recent address before the Society of Medical Jurisprudence. Dr. Darlington insisted then that the only hope of making cities more tolerable to the ear was by urging the public to demand the suppression of unnecessary noises, and the enforcement of existing ordinances. The "Journal of American Medicine" some time ago spoke of the indifference shown by many officials to enforce the laws that they were sworn to execute and then remarked: "the officials seem to prefer to execute the people."

And now a few words about our newly organized Society, so new — being only a few weeks old — that as yet but little is known about it. The idea of forming the Society occurred to me a few months ago, just about the time that the tug-whistle fight was terminated. It then seemed to me that, if an individual could carry through what had appeared from the first foreordained to failure, much could certainly be accomplished by a regularly organized Association composed of

representative men, all banded together to abate what they considered one of the crying evils of the times. The Society which has since resulted from this idea is controlled by two Boards, an Advisory Board and a Board of Directors, constituted as follows:

ADVISORY BOARD.

Prof. Felix Adler, Congressman William S. Bennet, Dr. John Winters Brannan (President of the Hospital Board), Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler (President of Columbia University), Sir Caspar Purdon Clarke, General James S. Clarkson (Surveyor of the Port of New York), Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain), Dr. Charles L. Dana, Dr. Thomas Darlington (Commissioner of Health), Robert W. DeForest, Dr. Francis Delafield, Captain Luther B. Dow (American Association of Masters, Mates and Pilots), the Most Reverend John M. Farley (Archbishop of the Diocese of New York), Dr. John H. Finley (President of the College of the City of New York), Richard Watson Gilder, William D. Guthrie, Dr. William Hirsch, Prof. Henry H. Howe, William Dean Howells, Dr. Thomas Hunter (Ex-President Normal College), Dr. George W. Jacoby, Prof. George W. Kirchwey (Dean of the Faculty of Law, Columbia University), Dr. Ernst J. Lederle (Ex-Commissioner of Health), Dr. John H. MacCracken (Chancellor of the University of New York), Prof. John Bassett Moore, DeLancey Nicoll, Captain George L. Norton (Editor "Marine Journal"), Congressman J. VanVechten Olcott, Congressman Herbert Parsons, R. A. C. Smith, Dr. Thomas L. Stedman (Editor "Medical Record"), Prof. William H. Thomson, James T. Woodward, Rev. Merle Wright, and Dr. John A. Wyeth (President Academy of Medicine).

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Dr. S. T. Armstrong, Superintendent Bellevue Hospital, Fordham Hospital, Gouverneur Hospital, Harlem Hospital), Rev. G. F. Clover (Superintendent St. Luke's Hospital), Egon Egghard (Superintendent Sydenham Hospital), S. S. Goldwater (Superintendent Mt. Sinai Hospital), Dr. Arthur H. Harrington (Superintendent New York Eye and Ear Hospital), Dr. Charles H. Hornby (Superintendent Flower Hospital), Louis Kortum (Superintendent German Hospital), James D. Lamb (Superintendent City Hospital, B. I.), James R. Lathrop (Superintendent Roosevelt Hospital), Dr. William Mabon (Superintendent Manhattan State Insane Asylum), Reuben O'Brien (Superintendent Manhattan Eye and Ear Hospital), Dr. George T. Stewart (Superintendent Metropolitan Hospital, B. I.), Richard H. Townley (Superintendent J. Hood Wright Hospital), Dr. M. S. Gregory (Resident Alienist, Bellevue Hospital), Dr. Luther B. MacKenzie (Resident Physician, Minturn Hospital), Dr.

George H. Ryder (Resident Physician, Sloane Maternity Hospital), Morton Arendt, Dr. John H. Girdner, Frances E. Hamilton, T. C. Martin, Dr. L. M. Michaelis, Isaac L. Rice, Mrs. Isaac L. Rice, John J. Rooney, Rev. George M. Searle (Superior General Paulist Order), Prof. James T. Shotwell, Father John Talbot Smith (President Catholic Summer School of America).

On the directorate are therefore the Superintendents of sixteen hospitals and their 8,500 patients. No stronger argument could be adduced for the need of activity in the suppression of noise in the interest of the sick and suffering.

As for the specific aims of the Society, probably the best way to set them forth here is to reprint the text of our first appeal to the public:

THE SOCIETY FOR THE SUPPRESSION OF UNNECESSARY NOISE

earnestly appeals to the public for support. It trusts that it will receive it for the following reasons:

FIRST—It believes that those who contribute so liberally to our hospitals will aid a society whose first efforts will be directed to relieving the intense suffering of our sick poor from the noise-evil. The presence on our Board of Directors of the superintendents of sixteen hospitals speaks eloquently for the need of activity in that direction. The number of hospital patients so represented is over 8,500, their recovery being retarded, rendered difficult, and sometimes altogether prevented by loss of sleep due to unnecessary noise.

SECOND—It believes that those whose sympathies and efforts are devoted to ameliorating the condition of our congested tenement-house districts will willingly aid a work which will strive to render conditions there more endurable. To the sensitive, noise, even amidst spacious surroundings, is disturbing, in confined quarters it is torture.

THIRD—It believes that those public-spirited men and women who are interested in improving civic conditions in general will help on a movement which has for its object the removal of one of the greatest banes of city life, unnecessary noise, which first wrecks health and then is chief torment of illness.

The eagerness with which the first steps toward checking the noise-nuisance were greeted by press and public indicated that the time was indeed ripe for an energetic, organized protest against this curse of city life. From the Atlantic to the Pacific there came a hearty response and a general demand for the enactment or reinforcement of ordinances for suppressing useless clamor.

It is needless to say that much noise in a great city is unavoidable, therefore we have not organized an Anti-Noise Society, but one which will confine its efforts to the suppression of unnecessary noises. Some of these are forbidden by statute, others by city ordinance, but in the rush of city life the enforcement of these statutes and ordinances is generally overlooked.

To be on the alert in the suppression of unnecessary noise, to enforce the existing ordinances and laws, to urge the enactment of others when needed, and to act for the Public in all matters of public complaint against noise, our Society has been organized. It will work along broad though conservative lines and is assured of the hearty support and coöperation of the Department of Health.

Only four weeks have passed since the first directors' meeting, but it may be of interest to give the encouraging results already obtained. At this meeting it was decided to carry on our first work along three different lines.

Believing that our city lines could operate their cars more noiselessly, we appealed to the management to take up the matter. A few days later, the following answer was received:

NEW YORK CITY RAILWAY COMPANY.

Mrs. Isaac L. Rice, Villa Julia, Riverside Drive,
89th Street, New York City.

DEAR MADAM: Referring to our recent conversation regarding the operation of cars in the vicinity of hospitals, I take pleasure in transmitting herewith copy of special order dated February 25, 1907, issued to motormen, in this connection.

Yours truly, OREN ROOT, JR.,
Vice-President and General Manager.

The order ran as follows:

775 Seventh Avenue, }
NEW YORK, February 25, 1907. }

To Motormen: Your attention is again called to Rule 202 in the Book of Rules for conductors and motormen, viz., when passing a church during the hours of service and at all times when passing a hospital run slowly and do not ring the gong unless necessary. Motormen should appreciate that patients in hospitals should not be subjected to any more noise than is absolutely necessary; their position is sufficiently unfortunate without adding to their discomfort unnecessarily.

A strict enforcement of this rule is required and motormen who fail to comply with instructions in this regard will be severely disciplined.

(Sgd.) T. A. DELANEY,
Superintendent of Transportation.

The second step was to enlist the assistance of the Police Commissioner of the City of New York, to whom I wrote the following letter:

NEW YORK, February 26, 1907.

Honorable Theodore A. Bingham, Commissioner of Police,
Police Headquarters, 300 Mulberry Street, New York City.

DEAR SIR: I beg you to kindly consider an appeal that I make to you in the name of thousands of our hospital inmates who are suffering from want of rest, due to unrestrained noise.

Appreciating as I do, the absolutely inadequate force of men with which you are compelled to safeguard the city, I do not ask you to assign any patrolmen for the purpose of specially watching the hospitals, although it is the earnest desire of many of the superintendents of our municipal institutions that such assignment should be made. Perhaps, later, it may be possible to grant our suffering poor that relief from preventable noise, but at present we ask for nothing that may not easily be accorded.

What we hope for, what we earnestly beg you to grant, is the assurance that orders shall be issued from Police Headquarters to the officers on guard near our hospitals to do all in their power to silence unnecessary noise.

(Here follows a list of complaints received from hospitals.)

I believe that if orders were issued to our police officers to insist on all possible quiet near the hospitals, that they would be glad to help in this humane work.

We have received so much encouragement from those to whom we have appealed for help, that we trust you, too, will graciously lend us your coöperation and assistance.

Respectfully yours,

JULIA BARNETT RICE.

(Mrs. Isaac L. Rice.)

The answer to our request was prompt and courteous:

POLICE DEPARTMENT OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, }

Office of the Commissioner, 300 Mulberry Street, New York, }

Mrs. Isaac L. Rice, 346 West 89th Street, New York.

DEAR MADAM: Yours of February 26 has been received and given careful consideration.

I can and will do what you ask.

I am so glad that you appreciate the inadequate force of men, because, if we had men enough, it would be possible to make each hospital a special post, but in order to do this it must be remembered that every special post means three patrolmen.

Very truly yours,

THEO. A. BINGHAM,

Police Commissioner.

Our third line of work was to endeavor to interest those owning and operating automobiles in our plans, and an appeal for all possible quiet was sent around to various Automobile Associations. At the moment of going to press, the first answer has been received. It is from the Association of Licensed Automobile Manufacturers and records a motion of the Executive Committee passed February 13, 1907.

Whereas, the Society for the Suppression of Unnecessary Noise requests this Association to assist in its movement, it is voted: That we approve of the purposes of this Society and will, so far as our influence extends, assist this movement in the City of New York, and hereby authorize the proper officer to signify such approval.

The notice issued by this Association runs as follows:

NOTICE.

The Society for the Suppression of Unnecessary Noise earnestly requests all owners and drivers of automobile cars in Greater New York, if possible to avoid passing any of the Hospitals or Churches and Public Schools while exercises are being conducted in the same; and further requests that if imperatively necessary to pass either Hospital, Church or School, it may be at reduced speed, and without any sounding of the horn.

It is submitted that the use of the horn should at all times be confined to cases of actual emergency, and then only used in a moderate manner.

The above notice is hereby endorsed by the

Association of Licensed Automobile Manufacturers.

MARCUS T. BROCK, *Assistant General Manager.*

February 19, 1907.

It will thus be seen that the results of the first month's work are most encouraging, and no less so are the accessions to the list of membership. As for the press, it is giving the movement all possible aid, and has sent us an enthusiastic welcome from the remotest corners of the Union.

MRS. ISAAC L. RICE.

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